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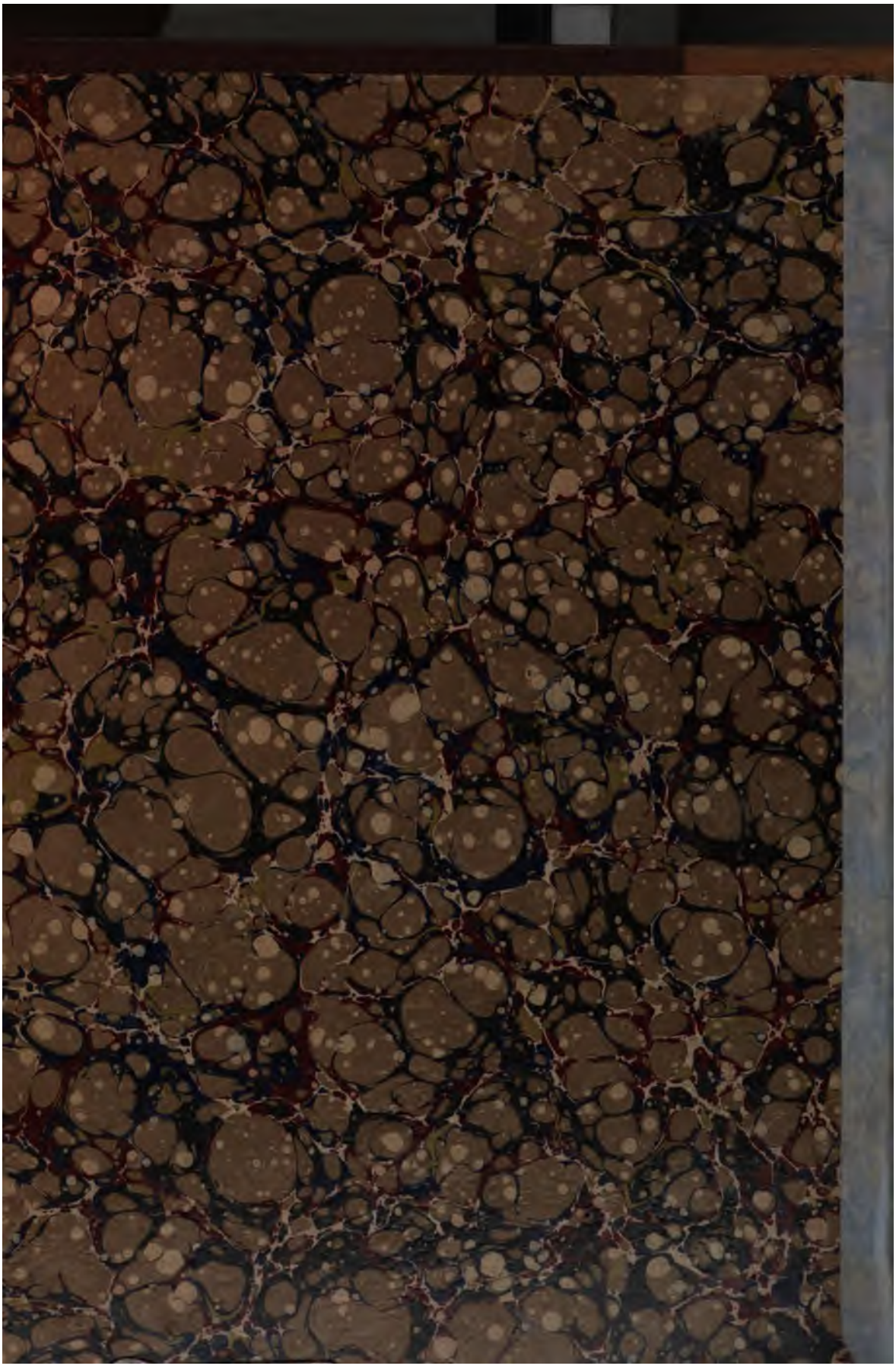

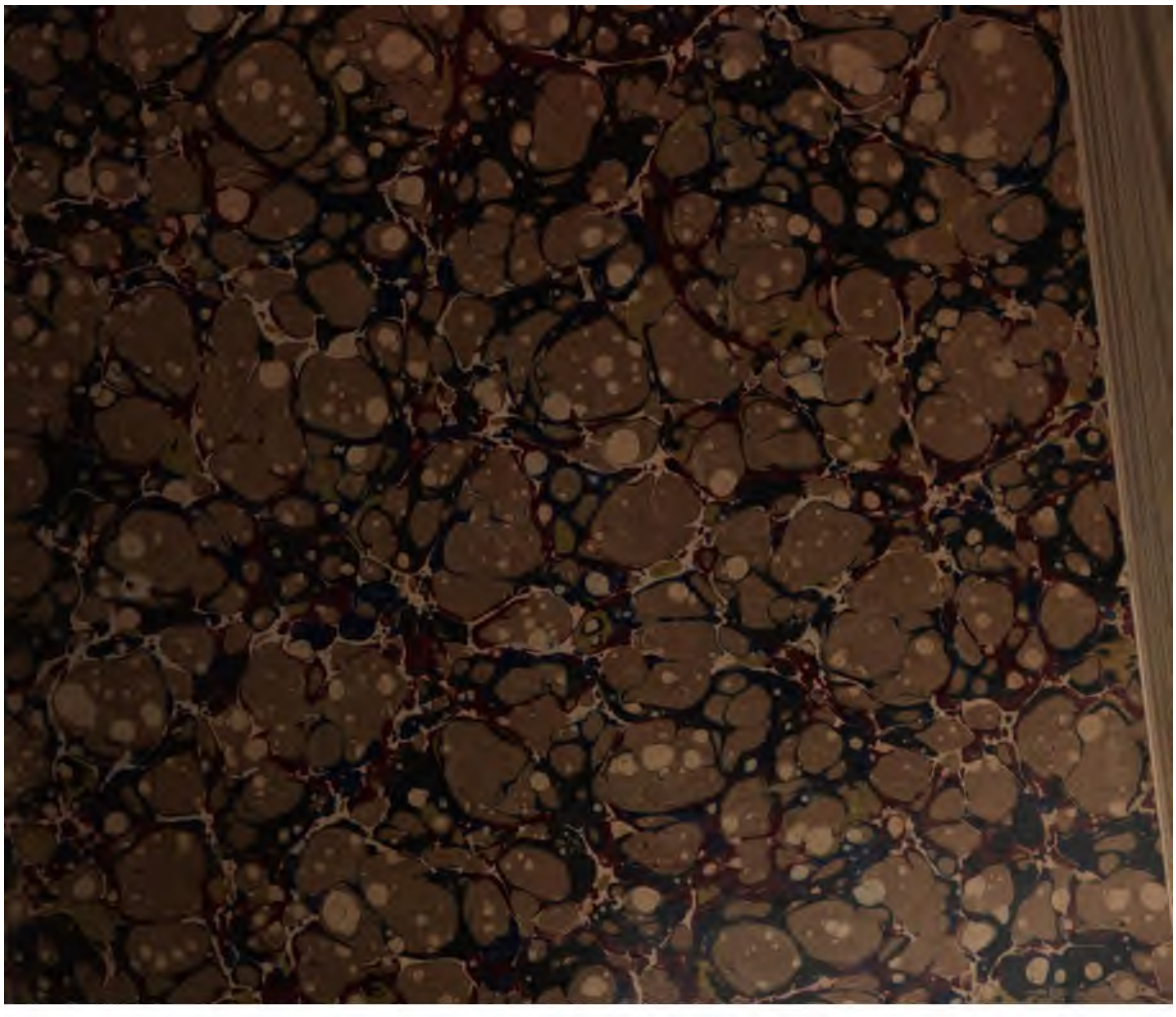

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ALFRED G. MAYER, DIRECTOR

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I. THE GERMINAL SPOT IN ECHINODERM EGGS.
By H. E. JORDAN.

II. THE SPERMATOGENESIS OF APLOPUS MAYERI.
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III. THE RELATION OF THE NUCLEOLUS TO THE CHROMOSOMES IN THE PRIMARY OOCYTE OF ASTERIAS FORBESII.
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IV. THE PELAGIC TUNICATA OF THE GULF STREAM.
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V. THE ORIGIN OF THE LUNG OF AMPULLARIA.
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VI. THE ANNUAL BREEDING SWARM OF THE ATLANTIC PALOLO.
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VII. RHYTHMICAL PULSATION IN SCYPHOMEDUSAE.
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VIII. NOTES ON MEDUSAE OF THE WESTERN ATLANTIC.
By H. F. PERKINS.

IX. HELMINTH FAUNA OF THE DRY TORTUGAS.
By EDWIN LINTON.

X. A VARIETY OF ANISONEMA VITREA.
By C. H. EDMONDSON.

CONTENTS.

	Page
I. The Germinal Spot in Echinoderm Eggs. By H. E. Jordan.....	1–12
II. Spermatogenesis of Aplopus mayeri. By H. E. Jordan.....	13–36
III. The Relation of the Nucleolus to the Chromosomes in the Primary Oöcyte of Asterias forbesii. By H. E. Jordan.....	37–72
IV. The Pelagic Tunicata of the Gulf Stream. By W. K. Brooks.....	73–94
Part II. Salpa Floridana (Apstein).	
Part III. The Subgenus Cyclosalpa.	
Part IV. On Oikopleura tortugensis, n. sp. A new Appendicularian from the Tortugas, with notes on its embryology.	
V. The Origin of the Lung of Ampullaria. By W. K. Brooks and Bartjis McGlone	95–104
VI. The Annual Breeding-Swarm of the Atlantic Palolo. By Alfred G. Mayer	105–112
VII. Rhythmical Pulsation in Scyphomedusæ. By Alfred G. Mayer.....	113–131
VIII. Notes on Medusæ of the Western Atlantic. By H. F. Perkins.....	133–156
IX. Helminth Fauna of the Dry Tortugas. By Edwin Linton.....	157–190
X. A Variety of Anisonema vitrea. By C. H. Edmondson.....	191

I. THE GERMINAL SPOT IN ECHINODERM EGGS

BY H. E. JORDAN
Of the University of Virginia

13 text figures

1

THE GERMINAL SPOT IN ECHINODERM EGGS.

By H. E. Jordan.

The object of this paper is to report the results of further studies of the prematuration stages of echinoderm eggs. The main problem involved is to determine the relation of the nucleolus to the chromosomes during the growth-period. I have recently shown that in both *Asterias forbesii* and *Hipponoë esculenta* the chromosomes for the first maturation mitosis arise from the nuclear reticulum with some variation of details in the two species.[1] In *Asterias forbesii* the chromosomes subsequent to origin assume a more or less intimate connection with the nucleolus just prior to maturation, and the nucleolus, after passing through a preliminary process of fragmentation, apparently contributes chromatic material to the chromosomes. In *Hipponoë esculenta* the relationship between nucleoli and chromosomes—if indeed one exist at all—is more obscure, but the nucleoli here also disappear about the time of maturation. The ultimate aim of these studies is to obtain some information regarding the function of the germinal spot.

I am now able to report upon two additional species of echinoderms, one again a star-fish (*Echinaster crassispina*) and the other a brittle-star (*Ophiocoma pumila*). The latter appears to agree rather closely with what obtains in *Hipponoë* and with what Wilson[2] reports of some of the sets of eggs of *Toxopneustes variegatus* treated with $MgCl_2$; while *Echinaster* presents a case unique in that the chromosomes here appear to arise as the direct products of nucleolar fragmentation. I regret that my material does not yield stages for the study of either the oögonial history or the maturation mitoses, but the various stages of the growth-period, which are represented in great variety and abundance, give conclusive results in regard to the essential point, *i. e.*, the origin of the chromosomes. I trust the coming summer will yield the stages desired for a more complete study of the oögenesis of these highly interesting forms.

The material at my disposal was collected during a brief stay at the Marine Biological Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington,

[1] Jordan, H. E., 1908. The relation of the nucleolus to the chromosomes in the primary oöcyte of *Asterias forbesii*. This volume, p. 39.

[2] Wilson, E. B., 1901. A cytological study of artificial parthenogenesis in sea-urchin eggs. Arch. Entwickl., Mech. Bd. 12: 529.

located on Loggerhead Key, Florida. I take this occasion to acknowledge my indebtedness to the above Institution, and particularly to Dr. Alfred G. Mayer, director of the Laboratory, whose cordiality, unstinted aid, and kindness have made this much of the work possible and the collection of the material a real pleasure. Of *Ophiocoma* there was very abundant material on the reef near Dry Tortugas. These eggs were almost ripe at the time of my departure from the key. The sperm were already ripe and very active at this time. Of *Echinaster* only a single specimen was found, and this quite accidentally in the moat about Fort Jefferson. I have since learned that this form is very abundant at the Marquesas Keys and I hope to obtain material from there during the coming summer. This appears to be a most promising object for future study.

The ovarian material was fixed in the sublimate acetic mixture. The sections were cut at 8 micra and stained according to Heidenhain's iron-hematoxylin method and some were counterstained with eosin. The accompanying drawings were made with a Bausch and Lomb $\frac{1}{12}$ oil-immersion lens with a No. 1 ocular, the outlines being obtained by aid of an Abbe camera lucida with the drawing surface 150 mm. below the level of the stage. The details were filled in free hand after study with a Zeiss 2 mm., aperture 1.30 apochromatic lens.

ECHINASTER CRASSISPINA.

The egg of this species at the culmination of the growth-period is very large (fig. 5, *a*). Its nucleus has a diameter of about 300 micra. The cytoplasm is of a beautiful large alveolar type (fig. 7). In the preserved material the nucleoplasm has contracted, leaving a lacuna which is partially filled with a homogeneous coagulum. The nucleoplasm is also homogeneous or very finely granular and non-stainable in basic dyes. Scattered throughout the nucleus are very many (a hundred or more) chromatic masses, most of which have the form of typical tetrads (fig. 5, *b*). Study of abundant transition stages from the ovum at the beginning of the growth-period to the full-grown egg above described reveals the complete and continuous history of the origin and development of the characteristic features of the nucleus and cytoplasm.

The very young egg (figure 1) is already large as compared with the eggs of most echinoderms. It is surrounded by a very thin nucleated membrane of the ovarian stroma. Its cytoplasm is coarsely granular. The nucleus frequently appears shrunken away from one side of its wall, leaving a crescentic lacuna. The nuclear reticulum is delicate, coarse-meshed, and pale-staining, with occasional flakes of chromatic material. The nucleolus is intensely chromatic, homogeneous, and of sharp outline. A slightly later stage shows very decided alterations, both in the cytoplasm and nucleoplasm (fig. 2). Many of the cytoplasmic granules have become greatly enlarged

and appear as yolk-spherules scattered in a granulo-reticular matrix. The nuclear reticulum has become coarser but is still pale-staining. Here and there are scattered chromatin threads of beaded appearance. The nucleolus is breaking up into many intensely chromatic globular bodies.

Successively later stages show a continuation of the above process. Figure 3 illustrates a stage where the nucleolar fragmentation and dispersal has progressed a little farther. The nuclear reticulum is similar to its appearance in the last stage, except that there are fewer of the beaded chromatin threads and, in this particular example, contraction of the nuclear reticulum again produced a peripheral artifact. Examples could have been selected where such contraction artifacts were lacking, but this particular one was chosen to demonstrate by comparison with figures 2 and 4 that the physical effects of the preserving fluid did not essentially modify the progressive changes in the nucleolar history. The cytoplasm now has the appearance of mixed granular and alveolar type. The large yolk-spherules have disappeared, probably by a transformation into fluid, a continuation

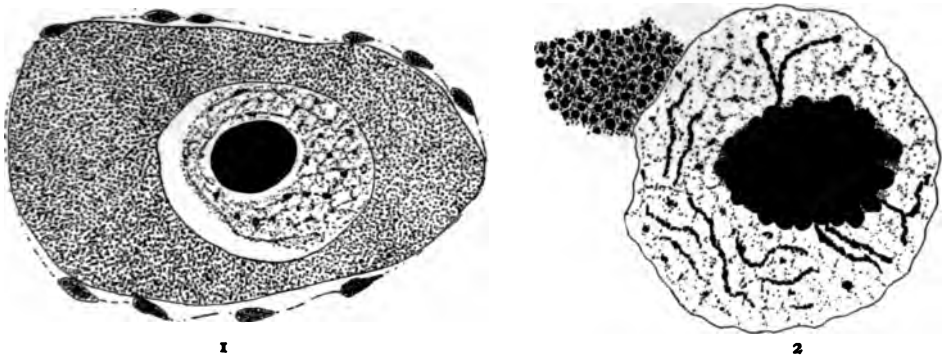

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FIG. 1.—Young ovum of *Echinaster crassispina;* nucleolus large, compact, homogeneous, intensely chromatic and with sharp contour; nuclear reticulum pale and shrunken away from wall at left; cytoplasm dark and coarsely granular. × 1500.

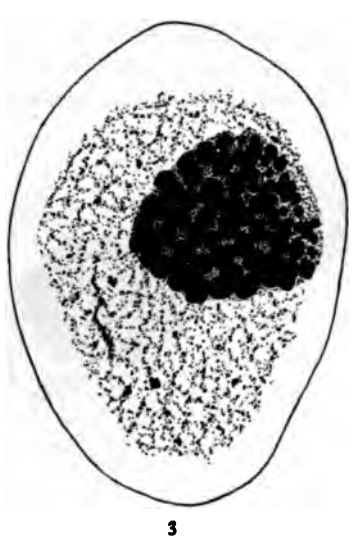
FIG. 2.—Nucleus at slightly later stage. Nucleolus breaking up into globular masses. Nuclear reticulum pale, but through it are scattered chromatic beaded threads. A portion of cytoplasm shown at left. It is still dark and granular, but many of the granules (yolk) have greatly enlarged. × 1500.

of which process for all the yolk-granules, large and small, culminates in the beautiful alveolar cytoplasm of the ripe egg (fig. 7). Figure 4 gives a stage in the dispersal of the nucleolar fragments. The products vary between wide limits, both in size and form, but most may be described either as globes, dumb-bells, or tetrads.

The culmination of the process of dispersal is illustrated in figure 5. Figure 6 shows similar nucleolar fragments from a portion of a single nucleus. Most of these have the form of typical tetrads. The unit of structure here seems to be a globe and the individual mass a four-lobed

body. Single, bilobed, and trilobed bodies can be explained in many instances as portions of tetrads, the latter having been cut in various planes or at different levels by the microtome knife. Several of the beaded chromatic threads have persisted, but they are frequently entirely wanting, always few in number and very variable in morphological characters. They may perhaps represent chains of smaller nucleolar fragments.

I am inclined to believe that these very definite four-lobed chromatic bodies are chromosomes, but I am aware that many objections may be made to such an interpretation. The only decisive test of the matter is lacking until the conduct of these elements is observed at the time of the formation of the maturation spindle. But whether already chromosomes or not, they must at least represent stages in the formation of the definitive



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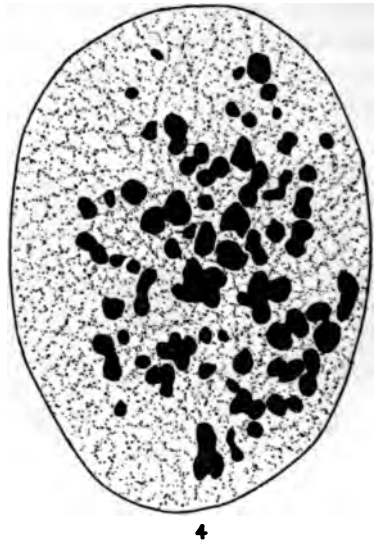

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FIG. 3.—Nucleus at still later stage. Nucleolar fragments separating. Nuclear reticulum, which remains pale-staining, shrunken away from wall. Cytoplasm still dark-staining and now appears as a mixture of fibrillar and alveolar types and contains abundant microsomes. × 1500.

FIG. 4.—Nucleus of later stage, showing chromatin products of nucleus scattered through pale reticulm. × 1500.

chromosomes. However, both cytological study of the eggs and macroscopical examination of the gonads indicates that the eggs are close to maturation and that the chromosomes have already final characters. For most echinoderms thus far reported on, the somatic number of chromosomes is 36. If these bodies are really chromosomes their number (reduced) here must be several times as many. However, according to Boveri, *Echinus microtuberculatus* has only 18 somatic chromosomes, and Tennent[1] reports a

[1] Tennent, D. H., 1907. Further studies on the parthenogenetic development of the star-fish egg. Biol. Bull., Vol. 13, No. 6.

probably similar number for *Asterias vulgaris*. Since the number is known to be less than 36 in some forms it is reasonable to expect that it may be more in other forms. Again, it is possible that the quadripartite masses may represent only parts of final chromosomes. But whatever the value of these bodies in terms of a univalent chromosome it is clear that they originated as the result of the fragmentation of the nucleolus. Nor can the chromosomes originate from elsewhere, for there appear no other chromatic structures anywhere in the history of the growth-period, except the occasional beaded threads which are not invariably present and have the same elongate thread-like appearance in the latest as in the earliest stages of development. These threads are very similar to those occasionally seen in the growing egg of *Asterias forbesii* where they are known not to be chromosomes, but where they probably represent streams of chromatin material in transit to or from the nucleolus.

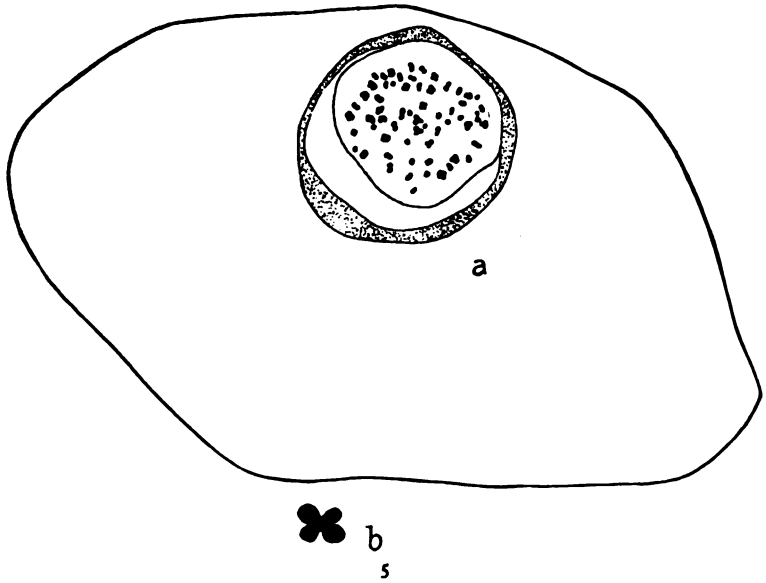

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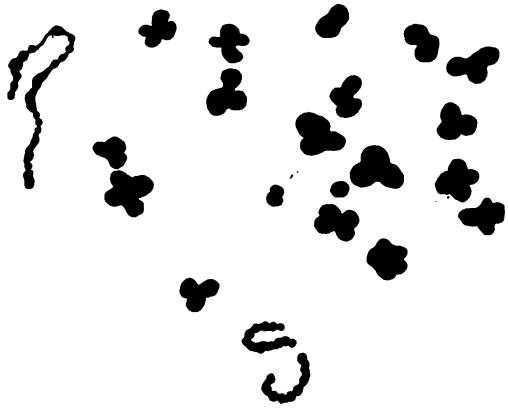
FIG. 5.—*a*, ovum of *Echinaster* at culmination of growth-period. Nucleus shrunken away from wall, leaving a lacuna partly filled by a homogeneous coagulum. Nucleoplasm very finely granular and pale-staining. Throughout it are scattered many chromatic bodies composed of one, two, three, or four globes. Many assume a typical tetrad-shape. *b* shows such a one magnified. × 1500. The cytoplasm is light-staining and typically alveolar. × 160.

Again, it might be objected that these bodies are products of nucleolar degeneration. But in reply it can be said that all the eggs are of similar constitution and that no other portion of the individual eggs gives any evidence of degeneration. Furthermore, it is possible to find hundreds of transition stages between those illustrated in figures 1 and 5, and the change is a progressive one from the very first intimation of fragmentation to the

complete dispersal of the definite and sharply contoured resulting bodies of the full-grown nucleus. In *Asterias forbesii* germinal vesicles were occasionally found in which were scattered as many as fifty or more small chromatic masses. These were interpreted as abnormalities or the result of degeneration. But in this case the bodies were always larger or smaller globes and were found only in the younger eggs. Nor could the nucleolus ever be seen as a whole to break up into such. The striking thing about *Echinaster* is the change of these elements from a globular form to definitely four-lobed bodies.

The case seems to be very clear for *Echinaster crassispina* that here the chromosomes arise exclusively from the nucleolus, the latter not even leaving a plastin remnant behind. The function of the germinal spot here seems to be wholly that of a storehouse of chromatin for the chromosomes, the latter being apparently, at least during the early history of the growth-period, compacted into one solid homogeneous mass or chromatin nucleolus, and their separate individuality merged into one common chromatic whole. It



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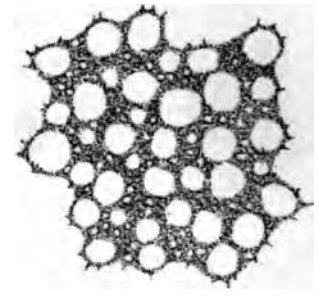

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FIG. 6.—A number of chromatic bodies from portion of a single nucleus; the majority have the form of tetrads and several are arranged in shape of chromatic threads. × 1500.

FIG. 7.—Portion of cytoplasm from an ovum at culmination of growth-period. × 1500.

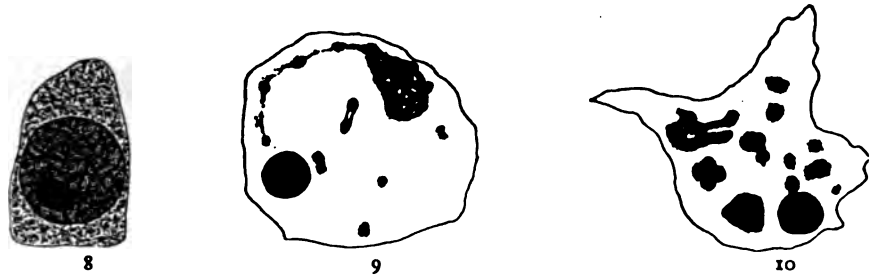
would be most interesting to observe here the final telophase of the oögonial division, and to study the process of synapsis and the construction of the nucleus and nucleolus of the resting stage of the oöcyte. The eggs are of such goodly size that this part of the investigation seems very promising.

All that the present material yields of definite fact is that the chromosomes arise as the products of a process of fragmentation of the nucleolus. Nor is the nucleolus here a double structure, though in the very early stages there is indication of a plastin ground-substance. But concerning the complete function of the chromatin nucleolus, its relation to a true nucleolus or plasmosome, as also its relation to an accessory chromosome, and concerning

the question of the individuality of the chromosomes, nothing definite can be adduced. The process of chromosome formation here seems to be unique among echinoderms. The only similar case known to me is that described by Wilson in some of the sets of sea-urchin eggs stimulated to develop parthenogenetically by $MgCl_2$, and here the chromatin nucleolus first resolved itself into a chromatic reticulum which subsequently broke up into chromosomes.

OPHIOCOMA PUMILA.

The eggs of this brittle-star are of moderate size, being about that of *Asterias forbesii*. Figure 11 shows an egg near the culmination of the growth-period. Maturation is probably imminent, for the nucleus has moved near the periphery and the nuclear wall is much shriveled. This assumption is confirmed by the fact that male individuals of this same collection carried sperm in ripe condition and very active. The cytoplasm is of the reticular type, with many microsomes and innumerable large dark-staining yolk-spherules. The nucleus has a homogeneous or very finely granular structure and remains unstained in basic dyes. Eosin reveals a delicate network. Scattered through the achromatic nucleoplasm are irregu-



8 9 10

FIG. 8.—Young ovum of *Ophiocoma pumila;* nucleolus homogeneous; intensely chromatic and with definite contour; nuclear reticulum wide-meshed, heavy and very chromatic; cytoplasm reticular, dark and with abundant granules. × 1500.

FIG. 9.—Nucleus at stage near culmination of growth-period; nucleolus intensely chromatic; reticulum massed at one pole and beginning to break up into chromosomes, some of which have a tetrad form. The nucleoplasm appears homogeneous or finely granular and is pale-staining. The cytoplasm is reticular with many large yolk-spherules. × 1500.

FIG. 10.—Nucleus at slightly later stage; wall much shriveled. A portion of the chromatin thread is still breaking up into chromosomes, some of which have the form of tetrads, and frequently one or several are attached to the nucleolus. × 1500.

lar, mossy, deeply-staining chromosomes. They vary much in size and shape, but some appear as tetrad-like bodies (figs. 9–13). The nucleolus has persisted as a compact, homogeneous, intensely chromatic structure with sharp outline and of original bulk. It is partly surrounded by what in many cases appears to be a vacuole. In figure 11 a delicate pale-staining reticulum appears in the vacuole. In many eggs at this stage (or probably of a slightly later stage) the nucleolus seems to disappear by lysis, leaving a pale outline of its original form. I was at first inclined to interpret the apparent

vacuoles as the result of a contraction of the nucleolus due to the action of the preserving fluid, and a subsequent pushing of the hardened nucleolus from its original position by the microtome knife. Further study and comparison with pictures like that presented in figure 13, where the "vacuole" is replaced by a body with a coarse chromatic reticulum, and the observation that the chromatin mass is always to one side, but not entirely outside of the "vacuole," compels the conclusion that one is dealing with a double nucleolus, *i. e.*, with a chromatin nucleolus and a true nucleolus or plasmosome.

It may still be true that the plasmosome serves merely as a plastin ground-substance for the chromatin nucleolus, as in *Asterias forbesii*, and that preserving produced unequal contraction in the chromatin and plastin,

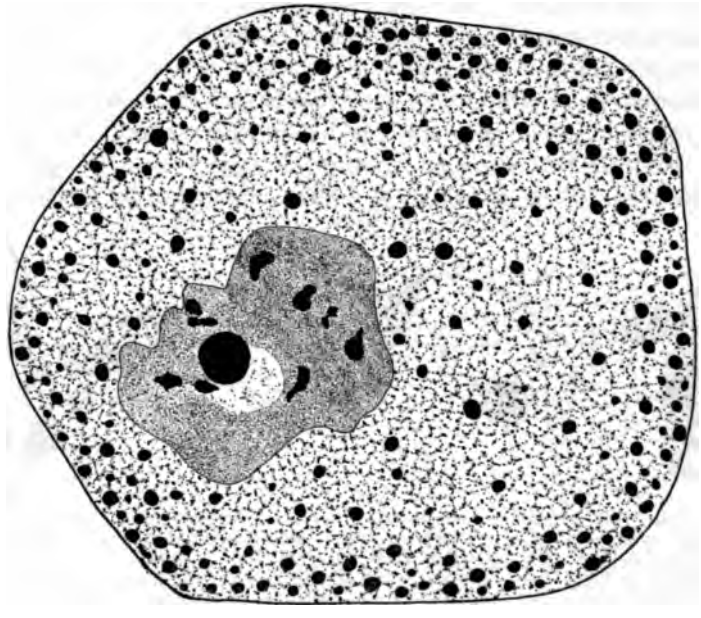


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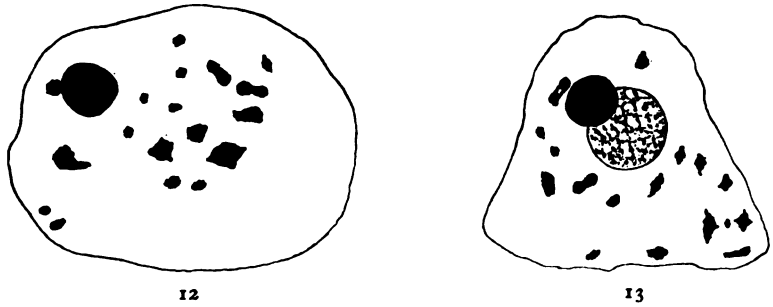
FIG. 11.—Ovum of *Ophiocoma* at culmination of growth-period; nucleolus still chromatic and with definite contour and partially surrounded by a vacuole through which extends a very pale and delicate reticulum; chromosomes of various shapes and sizes are scattered through the finely granular nucleoplasm. The cytoplasm has a reticular structure and contains very many yolk-spherules and microsomes. × 1500.

and a subsequent shifting, either artificial or natural, brought them into the relation seen in figures 11 and 13. But the fact that the plastin-nucleolus is not always present in the same section with the chromatin nucleolus (and where the latter is of the same size as where a plasmosome is present), as in figures 9, 10, and 12, indicates that there is here a plasmosome and a chromatin nucleolus. That the latter is not of the nature of an accessory chromosome is seen by the fact that it fades out in the later stages prior to

maturation. The vacuole when present is to be interpreted as the result of a resorption of the plasmosome or perhaps plastin ground-substance.

Ophiocoma presents a clear case where the chromosomes are derived exclusively from the nuclear reticulum. At a very early stage in the growth-period the ovum has a coarse granulo-reticular cytoplasm (fig. 8). The germinal vesicle contains a homogeneous, intensely chromatic nucleolus of sharp contour. The nuclear reticulum is heavy, wide-meshed, and very chromatic. Later stages show the segregation of this reticulum at one pole of the nucleus—sometimes about the nucleolus, sometimes at the opposite pole—as a tangled spireme. When insufficiently destained in the iron-alum solution, such stages do not reveal the thread-like character of this structure, but the entire area stains as a solid irregular chromatic mass. Subsequently the thread unravels and segments into chromosomes (fig. 9), some of which soon assume the shape of tetrads. They have an irregular outline and mossy appearance. Frequently one or several are attached to the chromatic nucleolus, and here, as in *Asterias forbesii*, there seems to be a tendency on the part of the thread to become attached to the nucleolus. Figure 9 shows the spireme partially segmented into chromosomes and the remaining thread



12 13

FIG. 12.—Nucleus at culmination of growth-period showing chromosomes of various shapes and sizes scattered through a pale, homogeneous or finely-granular nucleoplasm. × 1500.

FIG. 13.—Nucleus at final stage of growth showing chromosomes with appearance of tetrads and an intensely chromatic nucleolus connected with a larger spherical body of sharp contour and with a chromatic reticulum corresponding to the vacuole of fig. 11. × 1500.

almost in contact with the nucleolus. In figures 10, 12, and 13 are shown later stages of the same process of chromosome formation, the process being not yet complete in figure 10. Figure 12 shows 18 chromosomes (reduced number) and figure 13 shows 17 chromosomes. The exact number could not be definitely determined, but it is somewhere close to 18.

Here the chromosomes arise very clearly from the nuclear reticulum. The process here agrees essentially with that previously described for *Hipponoë esculenta* (except that *Hipponoë* showed no plasmosome), but differs again from what Wilson described for some of the two sets of *Toxopneustes* eggs artificially fertilized with $MgCl_2$ in that there is here a chromatin nucleolus in addition to the plasmosome common to both forms.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION.

In *Echinaster crassispina* the chromosomes are derived exclusively from the nucleolus. In *Ophiocoma pumila* the chromosomes arise exclusively from the nuclear reticulum. The germinal vesicle of both species contains a chromatic nucleolus. There are here two extreme types. *Asterias forbesii* furnishes an intermediate type in that here the chromosomes assume a more or less intimate connection with the nucleolus prior to maturation and receive substance therefrom. Eggs of *Toxopneustes variegatus*, parthenogenetically developed after treatment with $MgCl_2$, according to Wilson yield the two extremes in different sets, there being in one case present a plasmosome and in the other a chromatic nucleolus. It appears that different forms of echinoderms differ in the matter of the origin of the prematuration chromosomes. In some species the chromosomes arise from a chromatin-nucleolus, in others from a chromatic reticulum, and in still others in part from one source and in part from the other. Again, the eggs of different forms appear to differ in that some have only a chromatin-nucleolus, without distinct plastin ground-substance, resting in an achromatic nuclear reticulum (*Echinaster*); others possess both chromatin-nucleolus and plasmosome as well as a chromatic nuclear reticulum (*Ophiocoma*); and still others possess a double nucleolus (chromatin nucleolus and plastin ground-substance), with the chromosome complex gathered in a mass in the achromatic reticulum (*Asterias*).

The chromosomes thus arise inconstantly in different species from any part of the germinal vesicle that contains the chromatin material, and this may be either nucleolus, nuclear reticulum, or both. The function of the germinal spot then appears, in part at least, to be that of a storehouse of material which is to contribute to the formation of the chromosomes. What chromatin is not so employed is resorbed by the cytoplasm, probably returning to the elements from which it was elaborated and serving as a food material. There appears nothing here to support or confirm the theory of the individuality of the chromosomes, but rather much to arouse suspicion regarding the theory. But one may take refuge in the idea of "centers of chromosome activity" as suggested by Davis,[1] and so the chromatin may perhaps be regarded as merely the garb for the determinants of inheritance, and the characters that arise in their manifold variations as the result of a quantitative as well as a qualitative distribution of chromatin.

[1] Davis, B. M., 1905. Studies on the plant cell. Am. Nat., Vol. 39.

II. THE SPERMATOGENESIS OF APLOPUS MAYERI

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Plates 1-5

THE SPERMATOGENESIS OF APLOPUS MAYERI.

By H. E. Jordan.

INTRODUCTION.

The object of the present investigation is primarily to trace the history of the accessory chromosome through the various stages in the process of spermatogenesis in the phasmid *Aplopus mayeri*. Incidentally an effort is made to present in as concise a form as appears compatible with completeness the several salient points of similarity and difference between the growth and maturation phenomena as they obtain in *Aplopus* and other Orthoptera previously studied.

The study of the accessory chromosome is approached from the standpoint of its possible relation to the determination of sex as first suggested by McClung (1901), and its support of the hypothesis of the morphological and physiological individuality of the chromosomes as enunciated by Rabl (1885) and later extended by Boveri (1902), Sutton (1902), Montgomery (1904), Baumgartner (1904), and others.

This study purports to be mainly a cytological one. The microscopic anatomy, as also the anatomical relations of the gonads of *Aplopus mayeri*, is essentially similar to that so well described and illustrated by de Sinéty (1901) in the case of *Leptinia attenuata* and *Menexenus obstusespinosus*. Nor shall I here attempt a review of the literature on the subject of the "heterochrosomes" (Montgomery, 1901). This has been very excellently done by several cytologists (Sutton, 1900; McClung, 1902; Montgomery, 1904) and more recently and very completely by Boring (1907).

It seems necessary to state at this point only that the chromosome, for which I have adopted McClung's (1901) terminology, "accessory chromosome," has been described as a closely similar structure in many of the insects, especially the Hemiptera, under the several names of "odd chromosome" (Stevens); "chromatin nucleolus" (Montgomery); "chromosome speciale" (de Sinéty) and "heterotropic chromosome" (Wilson).

MATERIAL AND METHODS.

The material upon which the investigation is based was obtained from Loggerhead Key, Florida, through the kindness of the Carnegie Institution

of Washington and particularly Dr. Alfred G. Mayer, director of the Marine Biological Laboratory at Dry Tortugas.

The testes were fixed in sublimate acetic and Flemming's strong fluid, both methods yielding beautifully preserved specimens. Heidenhain's iron-hematoxylin long method was employed almost exclusively, both with and without counterstaining. The various structures were studied in the light of their morphology rather than their staining reaction and always at the stage of moderate decolorization. However, methyl green and thionin were also employed and confirmed in every detail (except in the case of the ripe spermatozoon, to be noted later) the results of the morphological study in the hematoxylin-stained sections. The sections were cut at 6.67 micra.

OBSERVATIONS.

The testes are paired and consist of two long thin-walled follicles which extend for a considerable distance on either side of the abdomen. Each contains a ventral collecting duct which is continuous with a vas deferens. The follicles are composed of many cysts. Spermatozoa are found in large numbers in the proximal (posterior) end of the collecting duct; immediately surrounding this area is the zone of spermatids; then appear the spermatocytes, and then, when present, the secondary and primary spermatogonia. Usually only the later stages are present in the proximal end of the testis and only the earlier in the distal end.

PRIMARY SPERMATOGONIUM.

The follicular wall consists of large flattened cells with elongate vesicular nuclei. This wall is continuous with the wall of the vas deferens, as well as with that of the numerous cysts. Except at the proximal end the follicular wall appears to be two cells in thickness. The inner cells are large and polyhedral, with very large oval vesicular nuclei, the wall of which is frequently lobed (fig. 2), and with a small amount of cytoplasm. These are the primary spermatogonial cells in the resting stage (fig. 4). At the distal end of the follicle, primary spermatogonia are abundant and the two-layered condition of the wall is not apparent. Nuclei of the cyst-walls are essentially similar to those of the primary spermatogonial and follicular cells. They vary in size between the latter cells, are vesicular, frequently lobed, and contain a delicate reticulum with occasional karyosomes (fig. 3). Neither of these nuclei contain a plasmosome. There are unmistakable signs of amitotic division among the primary spermatogonial cells next the follicular wall resulting in binuclear or polynuclear cells (fig. 1). Less convincing evidence of amitosis appear also among the nuclei of the follicular and cyst-walls. All three types of cells are frequently seen in karyokinesis and the process appears identical in each. The close similarity of nuclear structure and nuclear changes during division among the three types of cells forces the conclusion that they are identical.

Karyokinesis is initiated by an increase of stainable material in the linin network, a subsequent diffusion of the karyosomes and the arrangement of the chromatin into a spireme. This segments into a number of coarse mossy or granular deep-staining threads, which give indication of a longitudinal split (fig. 5). Presently the split is consummated, and the segments now assume the form of slender bipartite rods of varying length (fig. 6). By the time the chromosomes have entered the equatorial plate at the end of prophase, they have attained greater bulk, more definite contour, and greater affinity for basic dyes. The chomosomes are of various shapes, several are large and typically U-shaped, and the number is 35 (figs. 7 and 8). During metakinesis (figs. 9 and 10) the chromosomes separate, probably along the line of the longitudinal split seen in the prophase, similar variations in size obtain as in the prophase, and the halves are drawn to their respective poles, thus producing two secondary spermatogonia. Around these two cells a membrane appears—the persisting cell-wall of the mother primary spermatogonial cell—forming a two-celled spermatocyst (fig. 11).

During metakinesis the only kinoplasmic structures which are clearly visible are the spindle fibers. In the late telophase a very conspicuous mid-body appears, composed of a row of minute, deep-staining granules. Figure 13 shows a two-celled spermatocyst, one of the cells of which is in telophase. I have been able in my material to definitely determine upon at least three generations of secondary spermatogonia. There are probably several times as many, the early orders being so closely similar as to make identification uncertain. Sutton, in the case of *Brachystola magna,* was able to distinguish seven or eight orders of secondary spermatogonia. There are also several—probably many—orders of primary spermatogonia in all essential respects identical. It is possible to distinguish the primary from the secondary spermatogonia by the fact that the former have vesicular nuclei, often lobed, and a relatively small amount of chromatin, as well as by the fact that they are disposed irregularly and not in cysts, as are the older generations. From a telophase in which the daughter-chromosomes pass through a pale-staining granular stage arises the resting stage of the first order of the secondary spermatogonia.

SECONDARY SPERMATOGONIUM.

These cells in the various orders are in all respects similar until the final order is attained. It should be added here that the succession of events throughout the entire spermatogenesis could be definitely determined by the fact that cysts could always be found containing transition stages to and from the typical phase for that particular cyst, and these transition stages overlapped in the several cysts to such an extent as to render clear the order of succession. In the resting stage of the first order of secondary spermato-

gonia a deep-staining chromatin nucleolus (accessory chromosome) appears in the almost achromatic nuclear reticulum, of sharp contour and usually closely applied to the nuclear wall (fig. 13). Thus the accessory chromosome first appears as a definite characteristic nuclear structure in the resting stage of the first order of secondary spermatogonia. It answers to the various morphological and microchemical tests for a chromosome. There was nothing corresponding to this body in the resting stage of the primary spermatogonia, nor yet in the late telophase of the final mitosis. Since the number of chromosomes of the later spermatogonial cells remains the same as that of the primary spermatogonia (35), the accessory represents probably a specifically modified metabolic phase of an ordinary chromosome that had passed into the reticular stage in the telophase and returned to the compact stage much in advance of its fellows. At the next mitosis it passes without visible change into the equatorial plate with the chromosomes that arise from the segmented spireme of the prophase, and its presence there does not alter the constant count of 35 chromosomes for the unreduced number.

During the prophase of the ensuing mitosis the chromatin passes through the fine, coarse, and segmented spireme stages (figs. 14 and 15). Frequently the accessory chromosome gives indication of a bipartite structure presaging its later division in metakinesis. The long, mossy, deep-staining segments of the prophase shorten, condense and split longitudinally into pairs of short, slender rods, among which the accessory chromosome has become unrecognizable. These pairs of rods unite and are assembled in the equatorial plate as very chromatic rod-shaped bodies of variable size. Usually one among the number is typically **U**-shaped (fig. 17). The chromosome count is constantly 35 (figs. 17 and 18). Occasionally an equatorial plate showing as many as five **U**-shaped chromosomes similar in size and shape (fig. 20) is found. Figure 21 shows four spindles with the chromosomes at various stages of metakinesis. There is no mark or sign by which the accessory chromosome can be recognized at this stage. In the ensuing telophase stages (figs. 22 and 23) one pair of chromosomes always lags somewhat behind its fellows. This pair of chromosomes corresponds to those designated by de Sinéty during this same stage as the "chromosomes spéciales." However, while there is always one lagging pair, there may be several (fig. 23), and this fact renders the precise determination in all cases of the accessory chromosome impossible.

Figure 24 shows a twin spindle with the chromosomes at telophase. Again there is a lagging pair. This figure is undoubtedly the result of an amitotic nuclear division in an early primary spermatogonial mitosis resulting in a binucleate cell. The daughter-cells of such a doubly-endowed mother-cell probably give rise to the primary spermatocytes with double the number of chromosomes (36 in this case, 2×17 ordinary $+$ 2 accessory chro-

mosomes = 36) which are occasionally met with, and these in turn to giant spermatids and giant spermatozoa, which are also of frequent occurrence. In the telophase of this mitosis a mid-body again appears, similar to that of the previous division. At this stage the accessory chromosome is again unrecognizable, having probably assumed a brief diffuse form, and is thus lost among the ordinary chromosomes that are passing into the reticular stage of the resting nucleus of the final order of secondary spermatogonia (fig. 25).

In the resting stage of the last order of secondary spermatogonia a chromatin nucleolus (accessory chromosome) again appears in the almost achromatic nuclear reticulum (fig. 26). Its contour is less sharp than in the earlier spermatogonial stages, but it assumes its characteristic position near or closely applied to the nuclear wall. In late stages of the prophase it again appears bipartite. The chromatin again passes through the fine, coarse, and segmented spireme stages (figs. 27, 28, 29, 30 and 31), and compact chromosomes of comparatively small size and less variable form (35 in number) are drawn into the equatorial plate (figs. 32 and 33). A pair of chromosomes (daughter-chromosomes, products of a premature division) are frequently observed to enter the spindle perpendicular to its fibers (figs. 34 and 35). This unique chromosome is probably the accessory, since the latter had partially split already in the prophase.

During metakinesis the dumb-bell-shaped chromosomes become more and more elongate until at anaphase (fig. 36) the connecting chromatic fiber is broken and the chromosomes pass into telophase again with one or several pairs lagging behind (fig. 37). Late telophase stages are shown in figures 38, 39, and 40, the latter as well as the subsequent stages again showing a very conspicuous mid-body. Figures 41 and 42 show the chromosome complex at still later telophase, and the final stages succeed each other in the order given in figures 43, 44, and 45. This time the accessory chromosome does not pass through a reticular stage as previously (or perhaps such a phase is really assumed, but is of extreme brevity), for it is recognizable as such among the granular pale-staining, indefinitely contoured chromosomes of the final stage of telophase. A brief resting stage now ensues, during which the accessory chromosome is very conspicuous in the delicate achromatic nuclear reticulum, of sharp contour and closely applied to the nuclear wall (fig. 46).

PRIMARY SPERMATOCYTE.

The resting stage appears to be very transitory, for almost immediately decided alterations begin to transpire in the nucleus. The reticulum gains chromatin and occasional small karyosomes may appear (fig. 47). In the next stage, which is of comparatively long duration, the reticulum has arranged itself into a close-meshed lattice-work of wide threads. The accessory chromosome has an oval shape, intense staining capacity, and is closely

applied to the nuclear wall (fig. 48). Successive stages show the reticulum arranging itself into the form of a long, continuous (?) thread, more chromatic than during the immediately preceding stages. Attached to one end is the much-elongate, club-shaped accessory chromosome (fig. 49). Figure 50 shows two daughter-nuclei at this stage still connected by a cytoplasmic bridge of the mother-cell. Here the nuclear reticulum is still more or less of a lattice-work character, but the threads are thinner and more chromatic than in figure 48 and the accessory is already decidedly club-shaped. Successively later stages reveal a segmentation of the continuous thread and the arrangement of these segments into loops at one pole of the nucleus (figs. 51, 52, and 53). The final stage probably represents the synizesis stage of McClung. While these changes are taking place in the general reticulum, the accessory chromosome lengthens into a heavy rod-like structure, always with the pointed end attached to the chromatic spireme. Presently it begins to split longitudinally (fig. 52), and at synizesis it has also assumed the form of a loop, intensely chromatic, however, in contrast to the lighter-staining loops at the pole. The loops now begin to straighten out (figs. 54 and 56) and unite at their free ends into pairs, forming two-armed larger pointed loops (figs. 54 and 55). These loops are in length almost equal to the diameter of the nucleus, whereas the loops of synizesis were only of the length of the radius. This is the synapsis stage.

The point of synapsis is frequently very definite and after the consummation of the process is marked by a more intensely staining area. In synapsis the longitudinal split of the accessory is again closed up, and this structure becomes again a compact, deep-staining, more or less club-shaped body closely applied to the nuclear wall and now apparently unconnected with any of the chromosomal loops. It is as though the univalent accessory chromosome had segmented for the purpose of again uniting the products in unison with the synapsis of the ordinary chromosomes. If synapsis, then, means the fusion of pairs of chromosomes to produce bivalents, and since the accessory has no mate, the reduced number of chromosomes should theoretically be 18, and this is just what one finds in the equatorial plates of the ensuing mitoses (figs. 74, 75, 76, and 77). Figures 57 and 58 represent later stages in synapsis and are probably identical with the "bouquet stage" of Eisen. In figure 59 is shown a late postsynaptic stage which is very similar to the early presynaptic stage (fig. 48), except that the chromatin thread is not disposed in a regular lattice-work fashion and the reticulum is more highly chromatic. A very brief resting-stage is again interpolated after postsynapsis (figs. 60 and 61) just as before presynapsis, but almost immediately signs of the subsequent prophase appear.

In figure 60 the accessory chromosome is ring-shaped (representing a hollow sphere), an appearance frequently met with in methyl green preparations. In fig. 61 the accessory is very chromatic and applied to the nuclear

wall; in figure 62 it begins to assume a bipartite form (a preparation for its division in the telophase of the first maturation division). At this stage the sparse cytoplasm of the primary spermatocyte frequently contains several deeply-staining spherical bodies (fig. 63). These probably represent basichromatin rejected during the last preceding mitosis or the succeeding synapsis stage, for such bodies are occasionally seen in process of transit from the nucleus to the cytoplasm.

Preparatory to the first maturation mitosis the nuclear reticulum passes through the fine, coarse, and segmented spireme stages (figs. 62, 63, and 64). These segments are at first delicate and stain intensely. Subsequently they lose their staining capacity and assume a mossy or granular form. At this stage a longitudinal split appears in the segments (figs. 65 and 66). This is followed by a transverse split and typical tetrads are now formed, including **U** and ring-shaped forms (figs. 67, 68, 69, 70, and 71). During these changes among the ordinary chromosomes the accessory has retained its compact form and intense staining capacity, though it appears in various shapes (figs. 64, 66, 67, 68, 69, and 70). The splits in the tetrads close up again and the chromosomes pass into the late prophase as compact, deep-staining bodies, among which the accessory is only occasionally to be recognized (fig. 73). In equatorial plates of the prophase spindle the accessory chromosome can frequently be identified by its characteristic **U**'-shape or larger size (figs. 74, 75, 76, and 77). The number of chromosomes here is 18. During metakinesis the bivalent chromosomes divide into two elongate products of various sizes and shapes, most conspicuous among which are long and short rods, cones, clubs, wide, shallow, **U**-shaped bodies, and elements with the shape of short golf sticks (figs. 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, and 84). Usually a chromatin-connecting fiber remains until the early anaphase (fig. 83). The accessory meanwhile has passed undivided to one pole and in advance of the ordinary chromosomes and generally retains a **U**-shape (fig. 90). Occasionally, however, it becomes a double structure (figs. 81, 87, 88, 89, and 92), the result of a premature fission in anticipation of its division in the secondary spermatocyte mitosis. Among the ordinary chromosomes also some frequently appear double in the late anaphase and telophase, thus also evidencing a premature division.

During metakinesis a longitudinal split frequently appears in the elements of the dividing chromosomes (fig. 78). Thus the bivalent chromosome again assumes the tetrad condition of various forms (fig. 119). Upon the question as to which of these splits represents the longitudinal split of the early prophase and which the subsequently formed transverse split hinges the decision as to whether the first maturation division is a reducing or an equation division. In *Scolopendra,* Blachman (1903) finds a similar sequence of events in regard to the chromosomes during the early prophase, and on the basis of his own observations and the fact that " in all the inves-

tigations with which I am acquainted it has been reported that the longitudinal cleavage is first to be made evident in the prophase" believes that "it is only logical to conclude that this division is completed by the first spermatocyte mitosis." Upon the question of the sequence of the two spermatocyte divisions in Arthropoda the various workers are about equally divided. McClung, in the case of some Orthoptera studied, believes that the equation division comes first. Von Rath (1895), Henking (1890), Paulmier (1899), and Montgomery (1898, 1900, and 1901) arrived at the opposite conclusion in the case of various arthropods. Since the same result is obtained for the spermatozoa in either event, this point is really not of the vital importance it was formerly believed to possess. Nevertheless, it will be noted that during the later prophase, when the longitudinal and transverse splits again close up and compact chromosomes are formed, the long axis of these chromosomes does not appear to become the short axis and *vice versa,* but the earlier proportions and relations are approximately adhered to; therefore, since the first maturation division takes place transversely to the long axis of the chromosome, it appears that the first division of this mitosis is along the line of the second split marked out in the early prophases. If the generally accepted interpretation of synapsis is correct, *i. e.,* that it represents an end-to-end (telosynapsis) union of two chromosomes (paternal and maternal, Montgomery, 1901), and, furthermore, if these chromosomes do indeed separate during maturation along the line of their previous fusion, then the tetrad figures of the early prophase represent bivalent chromosomes divided first longitudinally or in the plane of the long axis (fig. 67), followed by a transverse split, *i. e.*. along the line of previous fusion and perpendicular to the long axis. Accordingly, the first division of the long chromosomes at metaphase must represent the transverse or second split of the early prophase and is a reducing division, since it separates whole chromosomes. Figure 119 shows several of the characteristic dividing figures (tetrads) of metakinesis. In the light of these figures and the probable relations of the splits here shown to those of the earlier prophase chromosomes, I believe that the first maturation division is transverse and reductional and the second is longitudinal and equational (including also the accessory). De Sinéty interprets both divisions as longitudinal in *Leptinia* and *Menexenus.* Due to the persistence of connecting linin threads, Stevens (1905) was able to demonstrate very conclusively that in *Stenopelmatus* (California sand-cricket) the first division is longitudinal and equational.

The chromosomes vary considerably in size and shape. Figure 80 shows a typical spindle with variously shaped chromosomes. Spindles at metaphase invariably show two pairs of reversed ⅂-shaped chromosomes, three pairs of long rod-shaped chromosomes, and the remainder are of the short rod or dumb-bell-shaped types. Correspondences of size between the

lent chromosomes of the equatorial plates of the first maturation mitosis and pairs of chromosomes of the spermatogonial stages can be found, but these are hardly of sufficient precision to seem convincing in support of the theory of the individuality of the chromosomes or to add anything confirmatory of the selective character of synapsis.

The accessory chromosome in *Aplopus,* it will have been noticed, passes undivided to one of the poles of the first maturation spindle. In the late telophase and during the stages when the daughter-nuclei are formed and the ordinary chromosomes pass into the nuclear reticulum, the accessory becomes more or less bipartite, but always retains its sharp contour and deep-staining reaction and its usual position in close connection with the nuclear wall (figs. 92, 93, 94, 95, and 96). The accessory chromosome still retains these distinguishing characteristics throughout the resting stage (fig. 97), which is interpolated between the two maturation mitoses, as well as during the early prophase of the ensuing division. At this stage the cytoplasm of the secondary spermatocyte also frequently contains several larger or smaller masses of eliminated chromatin. Obviously only one-half of the secondary spermatocytes resulting from the previous division can have the accessory chromosome. Study of many sections shows without a doubt that only about one-half contain the chromatic body (or any body that reacts to a selective chromatin stain) which we have identified as the accessory chromosome. Figures 101 and 102 show two secondary spermatocytes side by side, one with the accessory chromosome and the other without it.

According to the several investigators, there is variation among the Arthropoda in regard to the time when the accessory chromosome divides, *i. e.,* in the first or second mitoses. McClung (1900 and 1902*b*), in the case of several Orthoptera, has traced the accessory back into the spermatogonial rest-stages, and finds that it subsequently divides only in the *first* spermatocyte division. Baumgartner (1904) in *Gryllus domesticus,* Stevens (1905) in *Stenopelmatus* and *Blatella germanica,* and Otte (1906) in *Locusta viridissima* find that this chromosome divides in the second division instead of the first. Moore and Robinson (1905) claim that the accessory in *Periplaneta americana* is only a plasmosome that dissolves before each division and is reconstructed after it. This can not be the case in *Aplopus.* No indication of a true nucleolus (plasmosome) can be demonstrated by any of the several staining methods employed in any of the cells in the line of the spermatogenesis.

SECONDARY SPERMATOCYTE.

The prophase stages of the second maturation division present nothing extraordinary. The succession of events is similar to that of the spermatogonial division and an ordinary homeotypic mitosis, with the exception of the presence of the accessory chromosome. The latter never passes into

the reticular stage and assumes its usual position close to the nuclear wall (figs. 103 and 104). Occasionally it is double (fig. 105). As the ordinary chromosomes take on the compact form and intense staining capacity, the accessory becomes unrecognizable among them (figs. 107, 108, and 109) in the equatorial plates. The latter give a chromosome count of 18 and 17, representing daughter-plates from primary spermatocytes, with and without the accessory chromosome, respectively. Plates with 18 chromosomes show one large U-shaped body (fig. 110). This, however, while usually peripheral, is never greatly eccentric, neither here nor in the equatorial plate of the first mitosis, as frequently represented in other insect forms. Plates giving a count of 17 lack the U-shaped chromosome (figs. 111 and 112). The chromosomes at metaphase have the same characteristic dumb-bell shape as they had in anaphase of the previous division. While most of the chromosomes are already separating in metakinesis, a pair is just entering the spindle with their long axes perpendicular to the fibers (fig. 115). This pair occasionally has its distal ends apparently fused at this stage (fig. 113). It represents the fission products of the accessory chromosome which has undergone an equation division similar to that of the ordinary chromosomes of this mitosis. This pair is seen to lag behind in the anaphase and even in the late telophase (figs. 116, 117, and 118), Obviously only two out of every four spermatids can have the accessory chromosome, and actual count of spermatids in several cysts corroborates this theoretical conclusion. Figure 114 shows four contiguous secondary spermatocytes in the equatorial-plate stage—probably daughter-cells of two adjacent primary spermatocytes—giving a chromosome count of 17 and 18 alternately. The two cells with 18 chromosomes show an odd large U-shaped element, the accessory chromosome. In the final stages of the telophase the ordinary chromosomes again pass into the nuclear reticulum, but the accessory chromosome remains intact as a more or less dumb-bell-shaped body (fig. 120).

SPERMATID AND SPERMATOZOON.

Figure 121 shows three spermatids, two of which contain the accessory chromosome. The latter may assume various shapes in the spermatid (figs. 122, 123, and 124) and is usually again closely applied to the nuclear wall. In the younger spermatids (fig. 121) the chromatin, which is very sparse in amount, is arranged in clumps, mostly close to the nuclear wall. During the later stages of metamorphosis into a spermatozoon the nuclear contents assume a chromatic reticular character. Small karyosomes are abundantly present, and the accessory chromosome now assumes a spheroidal shape and more or less central position (fig. 125). Occasionally dark-staining granules of eliminated basichromatin are seen in the cytoplasm (fig. 126).

The spermatid begins to lengthen its cytoplasmic body into a blunt tail (fig. 125). Presently a very delicate axial filament begins to grow out

into this cytoplasmic fin. It is attached to the nuclear wall by a distinct chromatic granule, probably a centrosome. Up to this point no structure could be definitely decided upon as a centrosome in any of the mitoses, and it is only rarely that even an indication of an aster can be observed. However, the spindle fibers are always distinct and come to a definite point at the poles. Were the centrosome not here pointed out by the attached axial filament it would very probably escape notice among the various minute chromatic granules of the peripheral zone of the nucleus. The nucleus at this stage frequently shows a polar cap of a material that stains intensely in iron hematoxylin. This structure is not stained with methyl green or thionin and probably represents the head-cap or acrosome of the adult spermatozoon (figs. 136 and 137).

The axial filament now enlarges proximally (fig. 127). While this structure elongates distally and sends a slender thread into the long cytoplasmic tail, it differentiates into a proximal stout neck definitely marked off from the distal filament, and represents the future middle-piece of the spermatozoon. Successive stages with and without the accessory chromosome are shown in figures 128, 129, 130, and 131. The mass of cytoplasm surroundng the axial fiber subsequently becomes the cytoplasmic fin of the tail, spirally arranged about the filament (fig. 136).

Thus far in the metamorphosis the nucleus has remained approximately spherical and is surrounded by a thin cytoplasmic envelope. Presently the cytoplasm disappears, the nucleus becomes oval in shape, and the proximal end of the middle piece widens and flares so as to form a concavity to receive the nuclear convexity. The head-cap is conspicuous and the accessory chromosome retains its compact spherical shape. Later stages show processes of disintegration by fragmentation and karyolysis (figs. 133 and 134) and its final disappearance (fig. 135). The spermatozoon undergoes still further changes of form, until in its final stage the nucleus is comparatively small and the middle-piece large. The latter has typically a cigar-shape and the nucleus is approximately spherical, with a depressed cone-shaped head-cap (fig. 136).

The mature spermatozoon presents a very strange phenomenon in regard to its staining reaction to recognized selective chromatin stains. Figure 136 shows a spermatozoon stained in iron hematoxylin; figure 137 shows a spermatozoon of similar age stained with methyl green (or thionin). It will be observed that the chromatic portions are exactly reversed as interpreted by the two stains. The portion picked out by the methyl green corresponds with the nucleus (head) of other spermatozoa, and since this is a very selective chromatin stain, it probably definitely marks the true limits of the nucleus. The reaction obtained with the iron-hematoxylin stain, however, yields a very happy result in that it permits the observation of the disintegrating accessory chromosome. Figures 138 and 139 show

a giant spermatid (with the accessory chromosome, of double size in this case) in process of metamorphosis, and a fully formed giant spermatozoon.

Giant spermatozoa have been frequently observed among the insects. Wilcox (1895) found them extensively and made a study of them in *Cicada tibicen* and *Caloptenus femur-rubum*. With Wilcox, I believe that they are non-functional also in *Aplopus mayeri*, and that "they are excluded from the developmental series and really come to nought."

I have noted above that the primary spermatogonial cell frequently divides amitotically. This may occur several times, giving rise to a multinucleate cell. Contrary to what Wilcox has found in *Cicada tibicen*, where the giant spermatozoon "arises directly from spermatogonia without cell-division, by a metamorphosis of the nucleus," figure 24 shows that the binucleate cell resulting from an amitotic nuclear division may subsequently divide karyokinetically. Such a cell would give rise to spermatocytes of 36 chromosomes (which have been observed) and eventually to giant spermatozoa. I have not observed spermatocytes with 72 chromosomes, but such may very well arise as a result of two successive amitotic nuclear divisions.

Frequently spermatids are seen with two or even several tails. This phenomenon is due probably to an accidental or abnormal division of the centrosome, from each product of which an axial filament grows out. Adult spermatozoa thus deformed are only seldom seen; they probably early undergo degeneration.

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS.

INDIVIDUALITY OF CHROMOSOMES.

Among the ordinary chromosomes morphological individuality can not be convincingly demonstrated. This is due to the fact that between every mitosis, both spermatogonial and spermatocytic, as well as previous and subsequent to synapsis, a brief resting stage is interpolated when the chromosomes are merged into the nuclear reticulum. Correspondence of size can readily be found between the chromosomes of the equatorial plates of the primary and secondary spermatocytes, as also between these and pairs of chromosomes of the spermatogonial mitoses, but I do not consider the correspondence sufficiently close or striking to contribute reliable evidence in favor of the above hypothesis; nor do I believe it possible to find very strong evidence from this source in cases where we are dealing with so large a number of chromosomes. What evidence there is, however, points in the proper direction, as will be noticed by comparing figures 17, 74, and 114.

The evidence yielded by the accessory chromosome, however, is definitely corroborative of this hypothesis. When once fully differentiated in the later orders of the secondary spermatogonia it retains thereafter a persistently definite shape, size, and location in the nucleus, and never passes into a reticular stage. Even when assembled among the ordinary chromosomes of

an equatorial plate it is usually recognizable by its larger size or U-shaped form. The accessory chromosome, once having appeared in the spermatogonial cell, preserves its identity and morphological individuality unimpaired until it disappears in the ripening spermatozoon; and though it is never seen isolated within a separate vesicle, as described by Sutton (1900) for *Brachystola magna* (while each pair of spermatogonial chromosomes also become inclosed in a separate compartment of the nucleus) and Baumgartner (1904) for *Gryllus domesticus,* it nevertheless doubtless preserves also a strict physiological individuality, since it never unites with the ordinary chromosomes (except when connected for a brief period with the presynaptic thread) and ultimately passes to one-half of the spermatozoa, thus probably altering the physiological activity of those possessing it as compared with those lacking it in providing for the former a sex-determining factor.

DETERMINATION OF SEX.

In *Aplopus* a dimorphism of spermatozoa has been demonstrated, consisting in the presence of an accessory chromosome in one-half of the spermatozoa and its absence in the other half. McClung (1900) first suggested the possible causal connection between the dimorphism of sex and the observed dimorphism of spermatozoa. His conclusions were drawn from observations on some of the insects and the fact that sex appears to be the one character that divides the individuals of a species into two approximately equal groups.

Sections of ovarian material presented several favorable opportunities for making chromosome counts in somatic mitoses in the female. Equatorial plates of follicular cells of the developing ovum in mitosis yielded a chromosome complex, very distinct, and well separated. Though the number of such plates was not as large as could have been desired for absolute certainty, I am convinced that the somatic number of chromosomes in the female is 36 (fig. 19). Any number of very favorable equatorial plates of spermatogonial cells in mitosis give a chromosome count of 35 (fig. 17). Figure 114 and others give a clear demonstration of a dimorphism of secondary spermatocytes consisting in the presence of a large U-shaped chromosome in one-half the cells when the number of chromosomes is 18. Cells lacking this odd element have a chromosome count of only 17.

The reduced number of chromosomes in the mature egg must be 18, and an egg fertilized by one or the other type of spermatozoon will develop into an organism with 36 or 35 somatic chromosomes. Obviously the former (female) contains the accessory chromosome, and the latter (male) lacks it. From the chromosome standpoint the presence of an additional chromosome (the accessory chromosome) distinguishes the female cell from the male; hence the accessory chromosome appears to have some connection with the sex the organism is to acquire.

But as Stevens (1905) points out, it remains a question whether the accessory chromosome is really a sex chromosome in the sense that it determines sex or merely represents sex-characters. Bateson (1907) suggests that the accessory body may be merely associated with the cause of sex. Wilson (1906) suggests that the heterochromosomes (therefore accessory chromosome) may merely transmit sex-characters, sex being determined by cytoplasmic conditions external to the chromosomes; or again, that the accessory may be a sex-determinant only by virtue of a difference in activity or amount of chromatin. In view of its apparent function as a sex-determinant (whether of sex-condition or sex-characters), it hardly lends itself to the interpretation suggested by Paulmier and Montgomery to the effect that it is a degenerating chromosome—"such [heterochromosomes] as are in the process of disappearance in the evolution of a higher to a lower chromosome number" (Montgomery). Nevertheless, Wilson's further suggestion that the accessory of Orthoptera is the homologue of the large member of the idiochromosome group in certain Hemiptera, and that its missing mate is the homologue of the small idiochromosome—the accessory thus perhaps representing the residue of a pair of idiochromosomes after the loss of a pair of microchromosomes—is very helpful in formulating a working hypothesis in regard to the accessory chromosome considered as a sex-determinant.

Expressed in Wilson's (1906) formula for sex-determination, the facts in *Aplopus mayeri* are as follows:

A. Egg (18 chrom.) + Spermatozoon (18 chrom.) = female (36 chrom.)
B. Egg (18 chrom.) + Spermatozoon (17 chrom.) = male (35 chrom.)

Castle (1903) developed a theory of sex in which he applied a modification of Mendel's principle of segregation to sex-phenomena. This has recently been more fully elaborated and applied to the case of the accessory chromosome by Wilson (1906). Castle's theory involves several assumptions: (*a*) the fact of two kinds of eggs (male and female), as also of two kinds of spermatozoa, which have been actually many times observed; and (*b*) selective fertilization or infertility of gametic unions of like sex-chromosomes, *i. e.*, an egg with a female determinant must be fertilized by a spermatozoon with a male determinant, and *vice versa*. Castle further believes that there are no individuals pure in regard to sex, but that only hybrids are produced. Observation also seems to show the dominance of the female over the male determinant.

If the accessory is actually a sex-determinant, and as such represents the homologue of the large idiochromosome as suggested by Wilson, then, since an egg fertilized by a spermatozoon lacking the accessory chromosome produces a male, the egg itself must contain the factor that determines maleness, and the missing chromosome must be the female determinant. Consequently, since an egg fertilized by a spermatozoon containing the acces-

sory produces a female, the egg must contain the character that determines femaleness and the accessory chromosome must be a male sex determinant, which, however, is recessive to the dominant female determinant in the egg. Extending the above formulæ (following Wilson) to express these assumptions, they become—

A. ♀ Egg (18 chrom.) + (♂) Spermatozoon (18 chrom.) = ♀ (♂) female (36 chrom.)
B. ♂ Egg (18 chrom.) + (o) Spermatozoon (17 chrom.) = (♂) (o) male (35 chrom.)

The facts in *Aplopus mayeri* admit of interpretation according to Castle's theory of sex-production, and contribute to the cumulative evidence in favor of the hypothesis that there exists a causal relation between the accessory chromosome and sex-phenomena.

SUMMARY.

(*a*) Primary spermatogonia divide both mitotically and amitotically. In the latter instance cell-division is frequently not consummated and a bi or multi-nuclear cell results. A binuclear cell has been observed subsequently to divide karyokinetically, thus giving rise to primary spermatocytes with double the number of chromosomes ($2 \times 17 + 2$ accessory chromosomes = 36 chromosomes), which may develop into giant spermatozoa. Primary spermatogonia have neither accessory chromosome nor plasmosome.

(*b*) In the first order of the secondary spermatogonia the accessory chromosome appears in the resting-stage. During the late telophase of ensuing spermatogonial divisions the accessory is lost (probably assuming a brief reticular phase) until a spermatogonium of the last order is attained, when the accessory persists as a unique structure characterized by its definite form, staining reaction, position in the nucleus, and its behavior during synapsis and the maturation mitoses.

(*c*) During synapsis the accessory chromosome lengthens into a club-shaped structure attached by its lesser end to the presynaptic thread, undergoes partial longitudinal division, closes up again during the height of synapsis, and returns again to its previous characteristic form and location in the nucleus of the growing primary spermatocyte.

(*d*) Brief resting-stages are interpolated between the telophase of the final spermatogonial mitosis and synapsis and between the latter stage and the prophase of the first maturation division. The latter resting stage corresponds to a portion of the growth-period of the primary spermatocyte.

(*e*) The somatic number of chromosomes for the female *Aplopus* is 36; the spermatogonial number is 35; and the number for the primary spermatocytes is 18. One of these chromosomes is characteristically large U-shaped and situated at the periphery of the chromosome complex and is the accessory chromosome.

(*f*) The accessory chromosome passes undivided to one of the poles during the primary spermatocyte division. This mitosis is the reductional

division separating whole chromosomes which had united to form bivalents in synapsis. This division results in dimorphic secondary spermatocytes, one group possessing, the other lacking, the accessory chromosome.

(*g*) The second maturation division is equational, effecting a longitudinal division of univalent chromosomes. The accessory also divides equationally in the cells containing this element and lags somewhat behind the ordinary chromosomes.

(*h*) A dimorphism of spermatozoa results; the accessory chromosome possessed by one-half probably represents a sex-determinant.

(*i*) Nothing appears in the phenomena of synapsis or reduction as regards the ordinary chromosomes to suggest anything contradictory to the theory that synapsis signifies the final phase of fertilization and the union of maternal and paternal chromosomes, nor yet to contravene the theory of the individuality of the chromosomes; but no clear evidence appears in support of either hypothesis.

(*j*) The history of the accessory chromosome gives evidence that it at least possesses a strict morphological and probably also a physiological individuality.

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DESCRIPTION OF PLATES.

All figures were drawn from camera-lucida outlines made with a B. and L. 1/12-inch oil-immersion objective and a 1-inch B. and L. ocular. The length of the tube for all drawings was 160 mm., and the drawing-surface of board was 255 mm. below the level of the stage. The initial magnification thus obtained was 1,750 diameters. All drawings have been reduced one-third in reproduction.

PLATE 1.

FIG. 1. Primary spermatogonium with two nuclei. Nucleus at right contains a large karyosome. Binucleate condition is due to amitotic division, which is frequent among these cells. The cell is attached to the attenuated follicular wall, which contains broad, elongate, flattened nuclei.

FIG. 2. Resting-stage of primary spermatogonium, showing chromatin arranged in clumps connected by delicate linin threads. Quantity of cytoplasm small. Contour of nucleus appears somewhat lobed. Primary spermatogonial cells have no nucleoli.

FIG. 3. Nucleus of cyst membrane of a spermatocyst, similar to that of the resting primary spermatogonia. Division is usually mitotic, but frequently amitotic.

FIG. 4. Resting-stage of primary spermatogonium with fine-meshed nuclear reticulum containing one large and numerous small karyosomes. Amount of cytoplasm very scant.

FIG. 5. Late prophase. The chromosomes are in the stage of a partially segmented and longitudinally split mossy spireme.

FIG. 6. Still later prophase. The chromosomes are disposed as very slender split rods, some of which are greatly elongate.

FIG. 7, 8. Equatorial plates of primary spermatogonial mitosis; 35 chromosomes. (The larger number of elements—40 and 37 respectively—due to cross-section of limbs of U-shaped chromosomes.)

FIG. 9. Late metaphase.

FIG. 10. Anaphase.

FIG. 11. Late telophase; chromosomes in form of long, mossy, pale-staining threads. Mid-body appears as a very conspicuous structure of fine, deep-staining granules. The daughter-cells are inclosed by cyst-wall of mother-cell.

FIG. 12. Prophase and late telophase of secondary spermatogonium. The investing wall is that of the mother primary spermatogonial cell in form of a cyst membrane.

FIG. 13. Resting-stage of secondary spermatocyte. Nuclear reticulum only very slightly chromatic. A distinct chromatin nucleolus ("chromosome nucleolus"—"accessory chromosome") is present.

FIG. 14. Early prophase. The nuclear reticulum contains numerous karyosomes and a chromatin nucleolus which evidences a bipartite structure.

FIG. 15. Late prophase; spireme has segmented into a number of mossy lightly-staining chromosomes. The accessory chromosome has retained its sharp contour and deep-staining capacity.

FIG. 16. Still later prophase; chromosomes in form of delicate split rods.

FIGS. 17, 18. Equatorial plates of secondary spermatogonia with 35 chromosomes. Accessory chromosome indistinguishable from the ordinary chromosomes.

FIG. 19. Equatorial plate of a dividing cell of follicle of a young egg, showing 36 chromosomes.

FIG. 20. Equatorial plate of secondary spermatogonium, showing five of the chromosomes U-shaped.

FIG. 21. Cyst showing three cells at metaphase and a fourth partially at early anaphase.

FIGS. 22, 23. Late telophase; the pair of lagging chromosomes at left may be the accessory ("special chromosome"—de Sinéty) chromosomes.

FIG. 24. Telophase of a binucleate cell. Ensuing divisions give rise to spermatocytes with double the usual number of chromosomes (*i. e.*, 2×17 ordinary + 2 accessory chromosomes) and eventually to giant spermatids and spermatozoa. The binucleate condition is probably due to an early amitotic division of the nucleus.

PLATE 2.

FIG. 25. Very late telophase; mid-body prominent.
FIG. 26. Resting-stage of the final order of secondary spermatogonia, showing a chromatin nucleolus ("accessory chromosome").
FIGS. 27, 28, 29, 30, 31. Successive stages in the prophase of ensuing mitosis; accessory chromosome in figure 30 distinctly bipartite.
FIGS. 32, 33. Equatorial plates each with 35 chromosomes.
FIG. 34. Two spindles at metaphase, showing accessory chromosome splitting at the right of lower spindle.
FIG. 35. Early anaphase of similar cell.
FIG. 36. Later anaphase.
FIG. 37. Telophase stage, showing two pairs of lagging chromosomes.
FIGS. 38, 39, 40, 41, 42. Successive stages in the telophase of final secondary spermatogonial division.
FIGS. 43, 44, 45. Still later steps in the telophase of similar division; mid-body conspicuous in each spindle; figure 44 shows persistence of accessory chromosome as a body of sharp contour and deep-staining capacity among the pale-staining, irregularly shaped ordinary chromosomes.
FIG. 46. Nucleus of primary spermatocyte in resting-stage. Reticulum delicate and only very slightly chromatic. Accessory chromosome very close to nuclear wall. This phase is of very brief duration, as also the following one.
FIG. 47. Early growth-period of primary spermatocyte; nuclear reticulum more highly chromatic and with several karyosomes.
FIG. 48. Late growth-period; chromatin in form of close-meshed network of broad, mossy, lightly-staining threads. Accessory chromosome closely attached to nuclear wall. Amount of cytoplasm very small.
FIGS. 49, 50, 51, 52. Successive stages in the presynaptic phase of the growth-period. The accessory chromosome has become an elongate, club-shaped structure attached at its narrower end to the presynaptic chromatin thread; the latter in the form of a close-meshed lattice-work. Figure 50 shows two such cells still connected by cytoplasm of mother-cell. In figure 52 the accessory chromosome is beginning to split longitudinally.

PLATE 3.

FIGS. 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58. Stages of synapsis. X = synaptic point. Accessory chromosome is closely applied to nuclear wall; frequently it is split as in figure 57. Figures 57 and 58 may be identical with the "bouquet stage" of Eisen.
FIG. 59. Postsynaptic stage. Chromatin in form of an irregularly loosely-meshed network of broad, mossy threads, which give indication of a longitudinal split. The accessory chromosome is close to the wall; the cytoplasm is still scant.
FIG. 60. Resting-stage of postsynaptic period (stained in methyl green). The accessory chromosome has the appearance of a hollow sphere.
FIG. 61. Resting-stage (stained in iron hematoxylin). Nuclear reticulum very delicate and very slightly chromatic. Accessory chromosome solid and attached to nuclear wall.
FIG. 62. Resting-stage in which the reticulum is more chromatic; contains karyosomes and has a bipartite accessory chromosome.
FIG. 63. Early prophase of heterotypic mitosis; nuclear reticulum consists of coarser and more highly chromatic threads; accessory chromosome in form of a deeply chromatic sphere some distance from nuclear wall. The sparse cytoplasm contains several small masses of eliminated chromatin.
FIG. 64. Later prophase; accessory chromosome clearly double.
FIG. 65. Still later prophase; pale-staining, mossy spireme partially segmented and with indication of a longitudinal split.
FIGS. 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71. Stages in the prophase of the heterotypic division. The accessory chromosome (*a*) assumes various shapes, but always retains its definite contour and intense staining capacity. Several of the ordinary chromosomes, which stain only slightly at this stage, are in the form of tetrads.
FIGS. 72, 73. Later prophases; all the chromosomes have similarly sharp contours and intense staining capacity. Figure 73 has a ring-shaped tetrad and dumb-bell-shaped accessory chromosomes (*a*).

FIGS. 74, 75, 76, 77. Equatorial plates of first maturation mitosis, each with 18 chromosomes; among these, the accessory can be recognized as the large U-shaped or irregularly oblong body.

FIG. 78. Early anaphase of first maturation mitosis, showing very elongate daughter chromosomes with indication of a longitudinal split. The accessory has assumed a position in advance of the ordinary chromosomes near one pole and appears double.

FIGS. 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84. Spindles of primary spermatocyte mitoses with some of the chromosomes at late metaphase and some at early anaphase. These figures show the various typical forms of the accessory chromosome always in advance of the ordinary chromosomes; also the various forms of the latter in the heterotypic division. This is a reducing division separating entire chromosomes.

PLATE 4.

FIGS. 85, 86, 87, 88. Anaphase stages in the first maturation mitosis. U-shaped accessory chromosome attached to pole by single thread. In late anaphase stages the accessory chromosome becomes longitudinally split; the consummation of the split represents a separation at the bend of the U.

FIGS. 89, 90, 91. Late telophase; the mass of ordinary chromosomes has moved by the side of and beyond the accessory.

FIGS. 92, 93, 94, 95, 96. Successive stages in the late telophase of the first maturation mitosis; the accessory chromosome appears distinctly double and never passes into a reticular phase with the ordinary chromosomes at this stage.

FIG. 97. Resting-stage interpolated between first and second maturation mitoses; accessory chromosome double and closely applied to nuclear wall.

FIG. 98. Early prophase of second maturation mitosis; accessory chromosome still double. The narrow rim of cytoplasm contains several masses of eliminated chromatin.

FIGS. 99, 100. Later prophase of secondary spermatocyte division; both cells have the double accessory chromosome.

FIGS. 101, 102. Daughter-cells of the heterotypic mitosis in prophase for the second division. Only one of these cells contains an accessory; only half of the secondary spermatocytes have an accessory chromosome.

FIGS. 103, 104, 105. Three secondary spermatocytes in prophase of final maturation division, all of which contain the accessory chromosome. The segments of the pale-staining mossy spireme give indication of a longitudinal split. Cytoplasm is very scant.

FIGS. 106, 107, 108. Later stages in the prophase of the second maturation mitosis, of which figure 107 contains an accessory chromosome (*a*).

FIG. 109. Metaphase of second maturation division.

FIG. 110. Equatorial plate with 18 chromosomes. The large U-shaped chromosome is the accessory.

FIGS. 111, 112. Equatorial plates with 17 chromosomes; the accessory lacking.

PLATE 5.

FIG. 114. Four contiguous cells (pairs of daughter-cells from two primary spermatocyte mother-cells) showing the chromosomes in the equatorial plate. The number of chromosomes alternates from 18 to 17 among the four plates. The first and third contain a large U-shaped odd chromosome, the accessory.

FIGS. 113, 115. Early anaphases of second maturation mitosis, both showing the accessory chromosome entering the spindle perpendicular to the mantle fibers.

FIGS. 116, 117. Late anaphase and telophase, respectively, showing the lagging of the division products of the accessory chromosome.

FIG. 118. Late telophase; accessory chromosome projecting beyond the main mass of ordinary chromosomes.

FIG. 119. Various tetrad figures showing forms assumed by the ordinary chromosomes in the prophase and early metaphase of the heterotypic mitosis.

FIG. 120. Two spermatids, both with daughter accessory chromosomes; the ordinary chromosomes are in the irregular, granular, lightly-staining condition of the late telophase. The cell to the left shows the mid-body at its lower pole.

FIG. 121. Three spermatids, two with accessory chromosome. Only one-half of the spermatids can have an accessory.

FIGS. 122, 123, 124. Three spermatids, showing the various shapes and locations of the accessory chromosome.

FIGS. 125, 126, 127. Successive stages in the metamorphosis of the spermatid to form the spermatozoon; the accessory chromosome shown in form of a central intensely chromatic sphere. These same cells show a polar cap of chromatic material (this seen only in iron-hematoxylin preparations). The second contains a mass of eliminated chromatin in its cytoplasm and karyosomes in the nucleus. A short, slender chromatic filament has grown out from the centrosome into the cytoplasm.

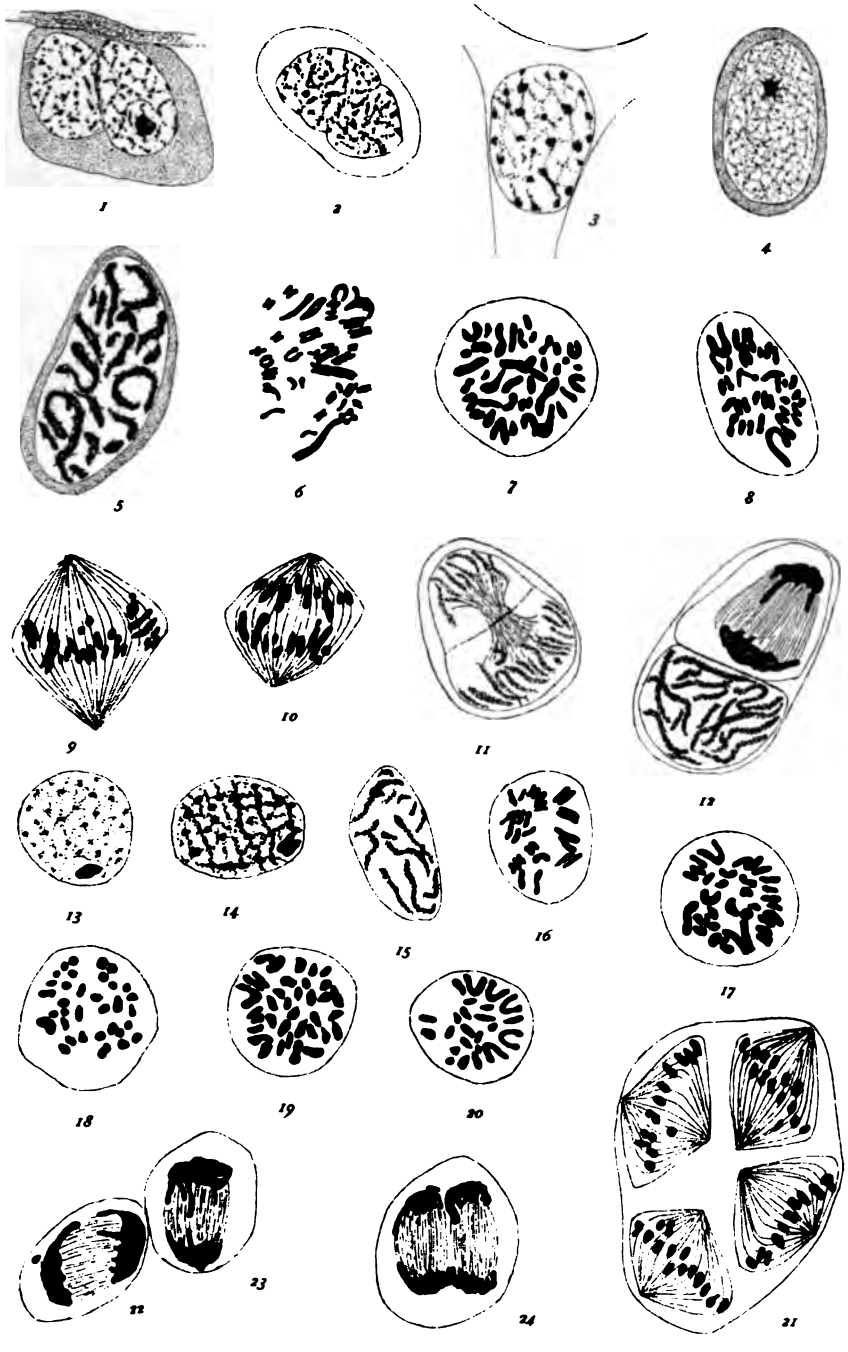
FIGS. 128, 129, 130, 131. Successive stages in the later development of the spermatozoon. Only one-half contain a chromatin nucleolus (accessory chromosome). The cytoplasm has elongated into a tail through which extends the slender chromatic filament much enlarged at the nucleo-proximal end to form a middle-piece or neck.

FIGS. 132, 133, 134, 135. Successive stages in the final development of the spermatozoon, showing the progressive disintegration of the chromatin nucleolus (accessory chromosome—still U-shaped in figure 133).

FIG. 136. Mature spermatozoon stained in iron hematoxylin; showing chromatic archoplasmic cap, vesicular head (nucleus), chromatic neck, and axial filament with spiral cytoplasmic fin.

FIG. 137. Mature spermatozoon stained in methyl green (thionin yields similar result) showing an achromatic archoplasmic cap, a chromatic head, and an achromatic cigar-shaped neck.

FIGS. 138, 139. Two of the final stages in the formation of a giant spermatozoon.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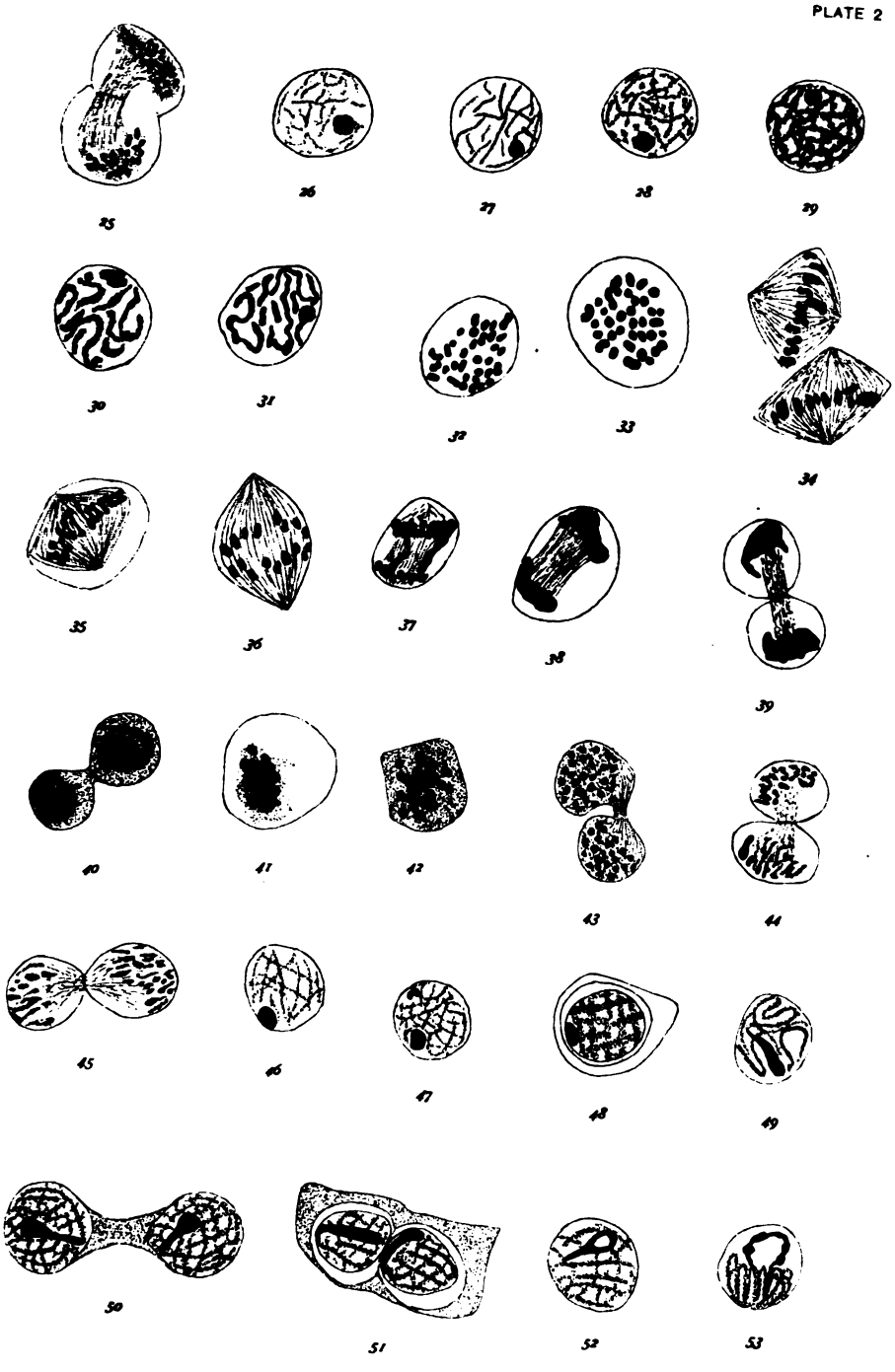
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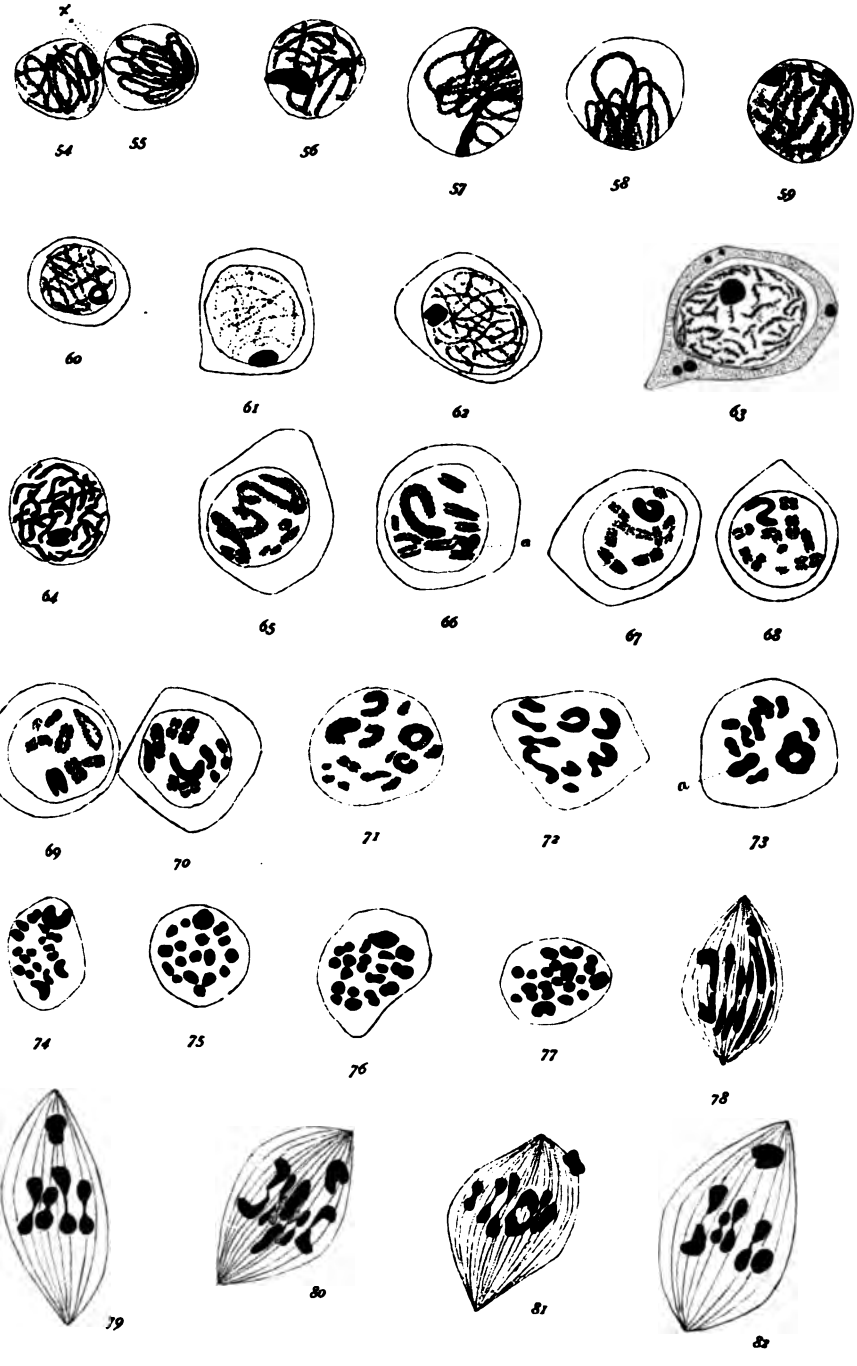
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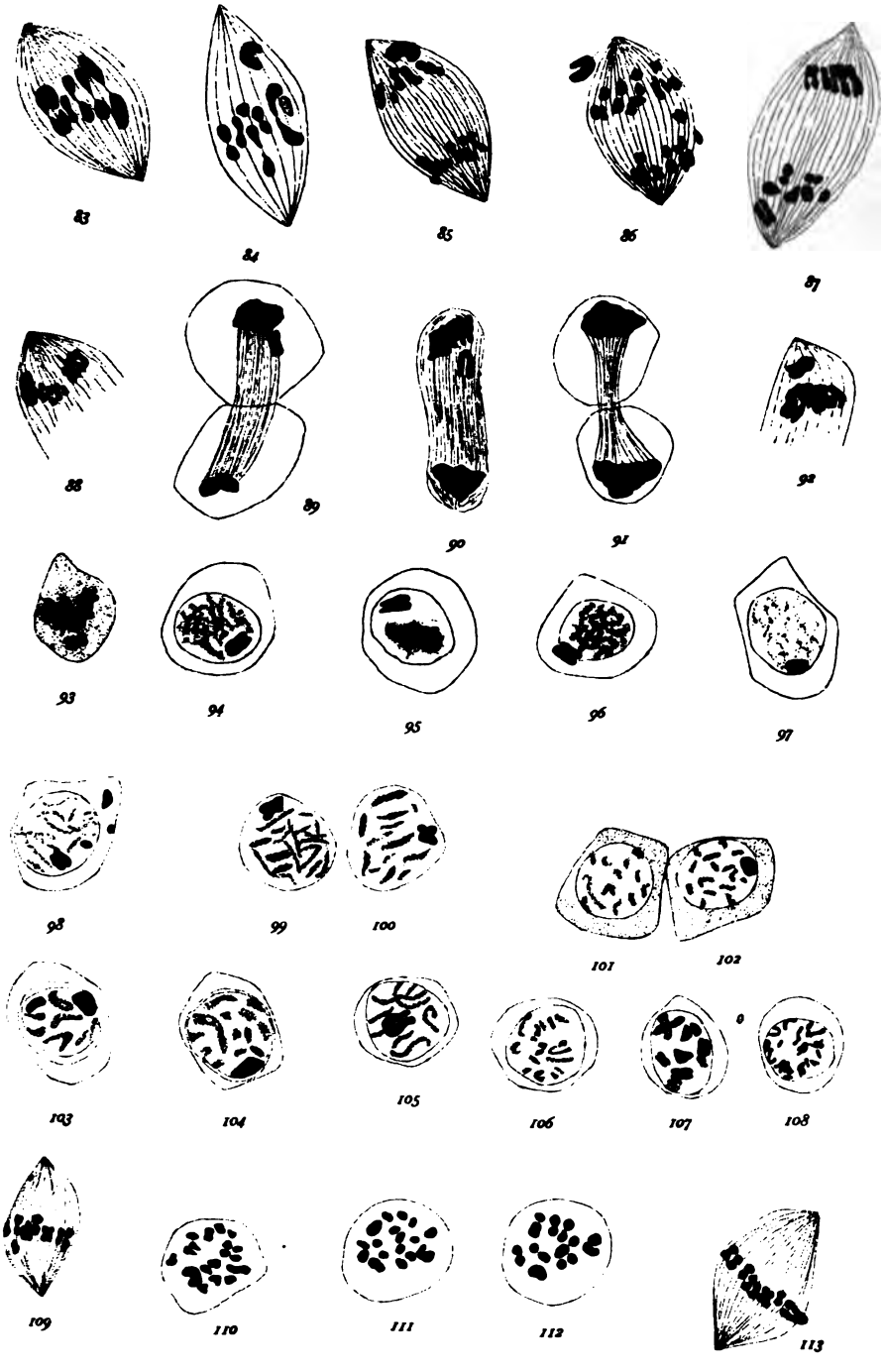
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III. THE RELATION OF THE NUCLEOLUS TO THE CHROMOSOMES IN THE PRIMARY OOCYTE OF ASTERIAS FORBESII

BY H. E. JORDAN
Of the University of Virginia

Plates 1–7

THE RELATION OF THE NUCLEOLUS TO THE CHROMOSOMES IN THE PRIMARY OÖCYTE OF ASTERIAS FORBESII.[1]

By H. E. Jordan.

INTRODUCTION.

The following investigation was undertaken at the suggestion of Prof. E. B. Wilson, to whom I am very greatly indebted for help during the progress of the work. Its primary object is to contribute to the subject of the relation between nucleolus and chromosomes during maturation. Hartman (1902) and Guenther (1903) maintain that in certain echinoderms the chromosomes of the first maturation spindle are derived from the nucleolus. If this view is correct for all of the forms, the oöcyte development in favorable cases ought to reveal the entrance of the chromosomes into the nucleolus. Accordingly, I have attempted to trace the history of both chromosomes and nucleolus from the last series of oögonia through the growth-period and maturation process of the oöcyte of a species of starfish, *Asterias forbesii*. My results show conclusively that in this echinoderm form, at least, the chromosomes do not arise out of the nucleolus at maturation. The nearest approach to such a state of affairs is where a close superficial attachment gives the appearance of a nucleolar origin. Incidentally are involved the questions of the function of the nucleolus, the significance of the nucleolar vacuoles, and a consideration of the mechanism of maturation. Observations were made on the living material and some study was devoted to preserved material during a two months' stay at the U. S. Fish Commission station at Woods Hole in the summer of 1906. I wish here to acknowledge many courtesies extended to me by the director, Dr. F. B. Sumner, and I desire also to express my appreciation of the splendid facilities for research offered by the laboratory. Further study was given to the preserved material in the Histological Laboratory of Princeton University during the winter of 1906–07, under the direction and with the kindly help of Prof. Ulric Dahlgren.

Through the kindness of the Carnegie Institution of Washington I have been enabled to extend the investigation to a comparative study with *Hip-*

[1] Thesis presented to the faculty of Princeton University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

ponoë esculenta, a sea-urchin very common in the shallow waters of the reefs in the vicinity of Dry Tortugas, Florida. I am under obligations to Dr. Alfred G. Mayer, Director of the Laboratory at the above place, for daily favors and many helpful suggestions.

METHODS.

As is now well known, when the immature ova of star-fish are shaken out of the ovary into sea-water they immediately begin to form the polar bodies. In ovaries opened during July and August I found from 50 to 70 per cent of the oöcytes at the stage of development where they could be thus induced to mature. The eggs were placed in water which was kept by frequent changes as nearly as possible within the limits of normal ocean temperature. In every case the development was allowed to proceed to the early segmentation stages, so as to assure a large percentage (about 60 per cent) of normal stages among the eggs previously preserved. In some cases sperm was added to the sea-water, but produced no noticeable effect, beyond the formation of a fertilization membrane, until after the second polar body was formed.

Ovarian material was fixed in Gilson's fluid, sublimate acetic, picro-acetic, and picro-aceto-sulphuric mixtures, and Bouin's solution. The sublimate acetic and picro-aceto-sulphuric mixtures proved most serviceable in that the coagulation product was less coarse and the relations of nucleolus, nucleus, and cytoplasm continued intimate and their internal structure undisturbed.

The stains employed were Heidenhain's iron hematoxylin followed by orange G, Delafield's hematoxylin with Congo-red counter-stain, borax carmine with orange G counter-stain, Auerbach's stain, and Flemming's triple stain. Heidenhain's iron hematoxylin with orange G yielded by far the most satisfactory results. Auerbach's stain was very serviceable in that it differentiated beautifully between definite chromatin and plastin. Flemming's triple stain proved very unreliable and generally unsatisfactory on account of its varying reaction. Still other combinations of stains were employed, as will be noted in subsequent descriptions.

The maturing eggs were fixed at intervals of 10 minutes through a period of 2 hours. Several series were put up at intervals of 5 minutes through a period of 1 hour; and still others at intervals of 30 minutes through a period of 3 hours. The results from four complete and several partial series are wholly in accord with each other. Besides the above-mentioned fixing reagents used for the ovarian material, Flemming's strong solution was also employed. In the case of the free ova, also, the sublimate acetic and picro-aceto-sulphuric mixtures proved most satisfactory in that they caused less disturbances within the cell substances. Flemming's solution, as also Gilson's fluid, preserved beautifully the mitotic figures, but

rather poorly the cell-cytoplasm. Similar combinations of stains were used with the eggs as with the ovaries and yielded similar results.

EARLY OVARIAN STAGES—SYNIZESIS.

Among masses of oögonia it is difficult to distinguish definite cell-borders. The cells have comparatively large very chromatic nucleoli, centrally situated and enmeshed in a very delicate achromatic (linin) nuclear reticulum (fig. 1). The diameter of the nucleus is approximately 2.5 microns and that of the nucleolus one-third as much. What cytoplasm could be seen between the cells stained straw-color with orange G. I have been unable to discover a single instance of mitosis among the oögonia either in very young or mature individuals. A stage of slightly larger size (figs. 2, 3) has a faintly chromatic nuclear network and a slightly more definite cell-border. With iron hematoxylin and orange G the nucleolus again stains deep black, while the granular cytoplasm stains blue. This is a typical oöcyte of the first order just entering upon its growth-period.

Among these earliest reproductive cells are frequently seen dark-staining (black with iron hematoxylin and green with Auerbach's stain) bodies of about the size of the nuclei of the smallest oöcytes. They are probably degenerating oögonia, now performing the function of "nurse cells." They lie scattered singly or in clumps among the oögonia. Occasionally there is faintly visible around some of these bodies a slight cytoplasmic rim. These chromatic bodies are probably similar to the " nutritive nuclei " described by Griffin in *Zirphæa*.

Very conspicuous among these youngest apparently resting oöcytes are such as are in more or less close synizesis (McClung) (figs. 6, 7, 8, 9). Usually these stages appear in pairs or quartettes. Such pairs indicate that they are the daughter-cells of primordial germ-cells undergoing synchronous development. The oöcytes in synizesis are slightly larger than the youngest oöcytes above described. The minute size of the cells makes it difficult to determine with certainty upon definite transition stages leading to the contraction stage. It is clearly evident that the cells are gaining in volume and I have accordingly adopted as my best criterion of development the size of the nucleus. Proceeding on this basis, I have discovered the following characteristics of the transition stages: The cytoplasm continues granular and basic in staining reaction. The nucleolus remains intensely chromatic and usually assumes an eccentric position. The nuclear network gains in chromatin and becomes progressively more conspicuous, both as to its chromatin and linin elements. The chromatin is largely gathered in clumps along the nuclear membrane (fig. 4). Presently the entire network becomes chromatic and in a slightly later stage assumes the form of a spireme (fig. 5). The threads (probably two in number) then shorten and thicken and contract in a tangled knot about the nucleolus and gradually close up in complete synizesis (fig. 10, size of nucleus 5.0 microns).

After synizesis the oöcyte begins a period of very rapid increase in size as well as a very rapid increase and alteration of its chromatic substance. Comparison of the youngest with the full-grown oöcyte shows that during the growth-period the nucleus increases in volume about 8,000 times (20 diameters). Oöcytes showing the first stages in the disentangling of the spireme from synizesis are abundant. All of them show the nucleolus intact and still highly chromatic (figs. 11, 12, 13, 14, 15). Later stages show that the stout primary thread becomes double (figs. 19, 20, 21, 22, 26). With iron hematoxylin and orange G the moieties stain intensely black throughout. The threads have regular swellings (chromomeres) along their entire extent, giving the appearance of a string of beads. With Auerbach's stain the picture differs somewhat. Only the "beads" stain green, while the remainder of the threads and network stain red. There is evidence here, I believe, in support of the view now very generally held by investigators that linin (paranuclein, O. Hertwig) and chromatin are closely related chemical substances and of equally important physiological value.

The double thread begins to divide transversely into a number (18?) of segments, as occasional specimens clearly show (figs. 20, 22, 23). Sometimes the spireme appears to segment while yet single (figs. 16, 17, 18). The pairs of beaded rods scattered through the nuclear reticulum undergo various transformations. They shorten, grow stouter, and often appear to unite at their ends, giving a ring form (fig. 25). Whatever shape they assume—ring, rod, sphere, or irregular mass of chromatin (figs. 24, 25, 26, 27)—they very generally have a mossy or feathery appearance at this stage. This is probably due to a transfer of chromatin from the chromosomes to the nucleolus through the nuclear reticulum. The reticulum stains more intensely at this stage with basic dyes and at its culmination the nucleolus has greatly enlarged. Subsequent stages show the chromosomes reappearing with bilobed forms and sharp contour and reduced size (figs. 28, 29). Ultimately the chromosomes become grouped in a mass (sometimes several masses) where they persist as much-reduced bilobed bodies (figs. 30, 33, 34, 41, 42) until they are taken into the first polar spindle at maturation.

The later stages in the development of the oöcytes above outlined are by no means sharply defined. Transition from one to the other is more or less variable as to characteristic forms and the time of its appearance. This is probably due to the fact that the amount of chromatin in the germinal vesicle of different oöcytes of the same age (as reckoned by size of nucleus) varies somewhat. Apparently the process of chromosome formation and chromatin absorption and elimination is hastened in some eggs and retarded in others.

The extreme minuteness of the cells and the total absence of division figures preclude all observations on synapsis, and consequently deny the sole

trustworthy clue as to the manner of the reduction of the chromosomes. The slight evidence that synizesis and the maturation divisions give seems to indicate that *Asterias forbesii* agrees with the parasynaptic type of reduction.

Up to the period when the oöcyte has reached about half its full-grown size the cytoplasm is wide-meshed and coarsely granular, the granules usually lodging at the intersections of the meshwork. With the iron hematoxylin and orange G combination of stains, the cytoplasm stains dark blue or in cases where the staining action of the orange G is prolonged the resulting stain is dark brown. In subsequent stages the cytoplasm is always stained a lighter or darker orange color. This difference in color reaction to similar staining combinations between the cytoplasm of the growing and full-grown oöcyte is very striking and due, I believe, to the presence of a great amount of yolk or to the fore-products of chromatin formation in process of transportation to the nucleus and nucleolus. There is a progressive and approximately proportional increase in volume of nucleolus, nucleus and cell-body through the growth-period.

Auerbach's stain reveals a similar difference in staining reaction between the cytoplasm of the growing and that of the full-grown oöcyte. In the latter the cytoplasm has a deep-red (fuchsin) color, while that of the smaller oöcytes has a grayish or bluish-red color, showing undoubtedly the influence of the methyl green constituent of the stain in its reaction to the forming chromatin. Similar observations have been reported by Griffin in the case of the egg of *Zirphæa.*

The ovaries upon which the above observations are made were gathered during July and August. A study of ovaries gathered during the last week in December confirmed in every respect the description given above of ovarian material. In both cases the sparsity of transition stages and the large number of apparently full-grown oöcytes is very striking. It appears that *Asterias* has no special periods of reproductive activity, as is the case with most of the Metazoa, but produces ripe eggs perpetually.

THE FULL-GROWN PRIMARY OÖCYTE.

The full-grown primary oöcyte of spherical outline has a diameter of about 100 microns. The nucleus of such an oöcyte has a diameter of from one-half to somewhat less than one-half the diameter of the cell (50–40 microns). The nucleolus varies in size from one-fourth to one-fifth the diameter of the nucleus. The nucleolus (or germinal spot) invariably takes an eccentric position as regards the germinal vesicle (figs. 37, 38, 39). A generalization to this effect for many kinds of eggs was made by Montgomery in 1898. The eccentricity of the nucleolus showed no regularity in respect to any particular side of the nucleus or even to the wall of the alveolus (figs. 38, 39). The nucleus also often holds an eccentric position as regards the egg-cell, though not infrequently it is located centrally (figs.

34, 56). At the periphery of the egg is a coarsely granular area one or several granules in depth (figs. 38, 39). With iron hematoxylin and orange G the granules stain deep black like chromatin or yolk granules. They are undoubtedly the latter. After a fertilization membrane has been formed these peripheral granules have disappeared, nor are they again to be seen in the blastomeres of the segmentation stages. It is probable that this granular layer contributed to the formation of the fertilization membrane and so disappeared when this was fully separated off. If this view is correct the fertilization membrane is the egg-membrane thickened by the contribution from the yolk-granules and as such separated from the ovum.

Particularly after fixation with sublimate acetic and picro-aceto-sulphuric is the close similarity between the cytoplasm in the living and fixed condition (but for increased definiteness in the latter case, amounting to an identity) very striking. It exhibits a structure of larger and smaller alveoli about whose walls are ranged in single line the minute granules or microsomes as already described by Wilson and here and there throughout the network large granules, probably yolk, similar in size to the peripheral granules. The faithfulness of preservation as observed in the cytoreticulum leaves little room for doubt that also what is seen in regard to the nuclear reticulum, the maturation mitoses, and particularly the dissolution of the nucleolus, are true representations of what actually occurred in the living egg. Atypical stages (fig. 56) can, therefore, in no case be regarded as artifacts due to faulty fixation, but must be interpreted as the result of abnormal development or degeneration processes.

The living egg shows a nucleus with an extremely delicate meshwork spun through a homogeneous ground-substance. Owing to the presence of a large amount of nuclear sap, the fixed nucleus differs greatly from that of the living egg. The reticulum now appears coarse and wide-meshed (figs. 29, 38, 39). It forms a dense basket-work about the nucleolus. After staining with iron hematoxylin and orange G, when the hematoxylin is greatly withdrawn the reticulum is uniformly yellow; when the stain is only slightly extracted chromatic swellings appear along the reticulum, giving it a beaded structure, and larger dark-staining masses (karyosomes) are seen at the intersections of the meshes (fig. 39). Auerbach's stain shows no such difference, but leaves the entire network uniformly red. Thus again it becomes evident that in the linin of the reticulum are areas which in degree of metamorphosis or condensation represent a transition stage between linin and chromatin.

The nucleolus yielded different appearances according to the stains that were employed and the length of their application. With the iron hematoxylin and orange G combination the oöcyte at the height of the growth-period exhibits a nucleolus extremely tenacious of the hematoxylin stain. An amount of extraction which renders the cytoplasm and nuclear retic-

ulum scarcely visible leaves the nucleolus as an intensely black homogeneous sphere, showing no trace of the vacuoles that are at other stages so conspicuous. Auerbach's stain applied at this stage also reveals a dark-green homogeneous nucleolus. That vacuoles are really present is seen from a study of living eggs and becomes manifest also when other stains are employed. The only reasonable conclusion seems to be that the entire nucleolus, vacuoles and ground-substance, are filled or impregnated with chromatin all at approximately the same stage of elaboration.

The same stains applied at earlier and later stages show vacuoles. Borax carmine stains the entire oöcyte red, the cytoplasm, nuclear reticulum, and nucleolus showing progressively deeper shades. The nucleolus under this stain always appears abundantly vacuolated. Orange G stains the nucleolus yellow and reveals a vacuolated structure; combined with iron hematoxylin the main portion of the nucleolus stains black, while the vacuoles remain yellow. With Auerbach's stain the main body stains dark green and the vacuoles red. A combination of orange G and Lyons' blue yields an interesting result. The nucleolus stains yellow and appears vacuolated, while the cytoplasm and nuclear reticulum stain blue. In these sections also the nucleolus shows a very distinct dark-blue wall. This result would seem to indicate that the nucleolar wall is derived from the nuclear reticulum.

Occasionally one meets stages likes the one shown in figure 38, stained with iron hematoxylin and orange G. Here one sees a dark-stained (chromatin) mass separating from a yellow-stained (plastin) mass of similar shape and size. The early maturation stages yield abundant evidence, as will appear in the descriptions which follow, that the nucleolus consists of a plastin ground-substance, throughout which, partly in the form of spherules (vacuoles) and partly as a fluid imbibed by the plastin itself, the chromatin is scattered in varying degrees of elaboration and condensation. Hartmann (1902) likewise describes a double structure of the nucleolus in *Asterias glacialis,* as also Guenther (1903) in *Psammechinus microtuberculatus.* Chubb (1906) states that in *Antedon* the " nucleolar material consists of two substances—the one acidophile and extending throughout the nucleolus, the other deeply basophile and borne by the acidophile ground-substance, to which its presence imparts a considerably firmer consistency."

This gives a clue for the interpretation of the varying appearances when different stains are employed—the nucleoli are formed by the union of a plastin ground-substance with a more or less fluid chromatin content. We have thus a mixed nucleolus. There is here another fact to support the view of a very intimate relation between linin (plastin) and chromatin. There is evidence also to show, as I shall describe later, that chromatin is capable of manufacturing its own plastin. The red vacuoles seen after Auerbach's stain and the yellow vacuoles after iron hematoxylin and orange G are thus the appearance of the plastin ground-substance, now visible be-

cause of the loss of chromatin from the spherules. The yellow nucleolus seen after staining with orange G and Lyon's blue must be explained, I believe, on the assumption that here only the plastin element of the nucleolus took a stain, the chromatin element showing no affinity for either of the stains employed. That the nucleolus should select one cytoplasmic (acid) stain and the remainder of the oöcyte another, remains inexplicable. Nor does it appear whether the selection is a chemical or a physical phenomenon.

Chromatin appears to be transported in a highly fluid form through the nuclear reticulum, where some of it becomes condensed as karyosomes, and some carried to the nucleolus, where it is lodged in the form of spherules. Here the chromatin undergoes further elaboration and condensation and is thus imbibed by the plastin, leaving vacuoles more or less emptied of fluid chromatin. Thus the fact that in all living eggs the nucleoli appear vacuolated is explained by the reasonable assumption that plastin and fluid chromatin in the shape of spherules have different indices of refraction, due to a difference in degree of condensation and possibly of chemical composition. When all the spherules are filled and all the chromatin is approximately at the same stage of elaboration (as at the culmination of the growth-period) the nucleolus stains homogeneously black with iron hematoxylin. When some of the spherules have lost their contained chromatin through extraction by the plastin, real vacuoles appear which seem colored according as the underlying plastin is stained. Whenever the plastin of the nucleolus becomes freed of the chromatin elements it always stains similar to the linin of the nuclear reticulum.

Occasionally one finds full-grown oöcytes which contain besides one large nucleolus several smaller accessory nucleoli scattered through the nuclear reticulum (fig. 56). I have counted as many as fifty of these in oöcytes in which the chief nucleolus was of almost normal size. Most of these were chromatic and stained similar to the chief nucleolus. Evidently such oöcytes have a superabundance of chromatin. I have never seen any such oöcytes mature. Cases of such eggs observed by me are too rare to permit the generalization that an unusually great amount of chromatin is detrimental to maturation and normal development. There is evidently a slight variation in the amount of chromatin contained in different oöcytes of the same individual, but a limit is probably reached beyond which a greater amount is abnormal. These cases, however, give certain evidence that the chromatin may manufacture plastin, or at least compel the morphological arrangement and chemical modification of plastin (linin) to be used as ground-substance, for it was frequently possible to see that these accessory nucleoli had each a plastin ground-substance, and occasionally one was seen with vacuoles similar to those of the chief nucleolus. Again, when the female pronucleus is formed it always contains a plastin nucleolus (plasmosome) (figs. 82, 83, 84). Very rarely this was seen to be chromatic (fig. 81), which may mean

either that the plastin elaborated chromatin or more likely that chromatin extracted from the nuclear reticulum took lodgment there. The male pronucleus exhibits a similar structure (fig. 85). In both pronuclei the plasmosome is lost shortly prior to fusion (fig. 86). All the evidence thus points to a very intimate physical and chemical relation between the linin, plasmosome, and chromatin nucleolus. I am inclined to the belief, in view of my results, that these three substances simply represent different stages in the process of elaboration of the same fundamental substance.

In every full-grown oöcyte are found usually one, sometimes several, masses of chromatin granules (figs. 31, 32, 33, 40). Generally these are in close proximity to the nucleolus (fig. 41), but frequently also removed at varying distances (fig. 38). Almost invariably this mass of granules is on that side of the nucleus nearest the periphery of the oöcyte (figs. 37, 49). In favorable cases I have been able to determine in it the characteristic dumb-bell shape of the definite chromosomes, only somewhat reduced in size. Again, in favorable sections I have been able to count approximately 18 such individual bilobed bodies (figs. 40, 43). There is no doubt that these are the chromosomes which have persisted with identity unimpaired all through the growth-period and are now taking their position in proximity to the nucleolus and periphery of the cell preparatory to maturation. Occasionally the chromosome group or strand lies closely connected with the nucleolus in the reticulum immediately surrounding it (figs. 37, 39, 41). This gives the appearance of a union with the nucleolus. Conklin (1902) describes very similar conditions in the maturing egg of *Crepidula.* It is doubtful if the chromosomes ever penetrate within the nucleolus, but they do often come into very close connection externally. In this state one can often see a portion of the mass extending beyond the border of the nucleolus, simulating an extrusion from the latter. Mathews (1895) mentions the presence of such a mass of granules in *Asterias forbesii,* but beyond saying that it gives rise to the chromosomes of the first maturation spindle gives no further details. Bryce (1901) ventures the suggestion concerning a similar mass of granules in *Echinus* that it may possibly represent synapsis. Tennent (1906), on the other hand, suggests on the basis of experiments on eggs of *Asterias forbesii* subjected to CO_2 treatment and subsequently fertilized that "a conjugation or synapsis of egg chromosomes and sperm chromosomes takes place immediately before the formation of the equatorial plate of the first segmentation spindle" (p. 539). Judging from analogy with other forms where synapsis has been definitely observed, and on the strength of appearances in the youngest oöcytes which seem to agree with the descriptions of early postsynaptic processes in some of these forms, I believe that in *Asterias* also true synapsis occurs some time during the telophase of the last oögonial division. The results above reported, I believe, justify the interpretation of this mass of chromatin granules as the persist-

ence of the postsynaptic chromosomes (sometimes still partially arranged in a thread). Thus the chromosomes have remained throughout the growth period in small individual bulk (always retaining their morphological identity) and in a compact mass. Their proximity to the nucleolus is to be explained in connection with the maturation phenomena.

Occasionally I have seen very close to the nuclear wall a small dumb-bell-shaped body (figs, 40, *a*, 49) (sometimes the body consists of three or even four globes)—somewhat larger than the ordinary bivalent chromosomes. Mathews (1895) describes very definitely the origin of the centrosome from within the nuclear membrane. I have tried to identify this problematical body with the centrosome of Mathews. This I am unable to do for several reasons. Bryce (1903) also describes very similar bodies in *Echinus esculentus,* but says that he has not been able to convince himself "that they are more than accidents of staining and fixing" (p. 491). Hartmann (1902) makes no definite mention of such structure in *Asterias glacialis,* probably including this as well as the above-mentioned masses of granules under the "clumps of chromatin" and "accessory nucleoli." However, eggs in which such distribution of chromatin occurs Hartmann classifies as "abnormal," stating further that in normal eggs all "genuine chromatin and plastin were combined in a single nucleolus." Nor does Guenther (1903) mention this body in *Psammechinus microtuberculatus* or *Holothuria tubulosa.* I tried also to identify it with portion of the chromosome mass, but unsatisfactorily. Though I can make no positive statement concerning it, inclining to the opinion that it represents several or perhaps a single large bivalent chromosome, since it is not invariably present with certainty, I am convinced that it can not be the centrosome. For reasons soon to be given, I hold to an extra-nuclear origin of the centrosome. Furthermore, this problematical body is always at least double, while the centrosome arises as a single structure. Again, its size is several times larger than the largest centrosome I have seen during the maturation process. I have not been able to follow satisfactorily the fate of these bodies amid the general mingling and concentration of chromosomes and nuclear fragments and their exit from the nucleus at one point during the initial stages of maturation.

MATURATION.

NUCLEAR AND CYTOPLASMIC ALTERATIONS.

Study of sectioned material confirms in every respect my observations on the living eggs. In batches of eggs fixed from 5 to 10 minutes after deposition in sea-water the initial stages of maturation are already visible. The first indication is a puckering of the nuclear wall on the side nearest the periphery of the egg (figs. 38, 49, 50). Dissolution or rupture of the wall occurs at this point after an interval of from 15 to 20 minutes (time always reckoned from time that eggs are placed in sea-water) allowing an inter-

change of nuclear and cytoplasmic contents (figs. 53, 54). The puckering and subsequent dissolution of the nuclear wall extend progressively over the entire circumference until after an interval of about 30 minutes, or by the time the first polar spindle is fully formed (though still tangential to surface of egg), the nuclear wall has completely disappeared (figs. 52, 55, 62). Mathews claims to have been able to trace the origin of the centrosomes from a small granule (dividing into two before passing out of the germinal vesicle) within the nuclear membrane, and figures, the centrosomes passing through the ruptured wall. I am unable, as I described above, to identify any chromatic bodies (or such as were differentiated by the stains employed) with a possible centrosome. I am unable to trace any of the several bodies seen in many nuclei in passage through the nuclear wall. Nor is it possible to identify any of the many small dark-staining bodies outside of the nuclear wall with centrosomes. If there really be such, they are indistinguishable from the yolk-granules abundantly scattered through the cytoplasm. It is only where an archoplasmic sphere appears about such bodies that they become recognizable as centrosomes. As such I have seen them arise in the narrow strip of cytoplasm between the nucleus and periphery of egg while the nuclear wall was still, as far as the microscope revealed, wholly intact (fig. 50). This is conclusive proof, I think, against their intranuclear origin, though it still remains possible that the centrosomes may arise from the outer layer of the nuclear wall. I believe it more probable, however, that here also, as described by Griffin for *Thallasema* and by other investigators for various forms, the centrosomes arise in the cytoplasm. Hartmann (1902), without making any mention as to their origin in *Asterias glacialis,* shows illustrations where two fully formed centrosomes with surrounding centrospheres and rays are present, identical with my own in *Asterias forbesii.*

Bryce (1903) thinks that in *Echinus esculentus* the centrosomes arise in the mass of cytoplasm which projects into the nucleus at the time of the rupture of the nuclear wall, thus also indicating cytoplasmic origin for these structures. Their origin in this location may be due to the fact that "the wall of the vesicle is always very close to the surface of the egg, leaving no room for such a formation, and the aster seems to form within the process" (p. 188). The astral and spindle fibers, however, he believes to be spun from the nuclear reticulum. In *Asterias forbesii* there is no such difinite mass of cytoplasm projecting into the nucleus, nor are there any facts to support the view that the asters and spindle fibers arise from the nuclear reticulum.

The centrosome in *Asterias forbesii* is at first a single structure of the form of a central granule (staining black with iron hematoxylin) within a surrounding sphere (centrosphere) of orange-staining (with orange G) archoplasm. There is unmistakable evidence that this single body divides

into two. Even shortly before this division astral rays are seen to take form round the single centrosphere. These are undoubtedly formed from the cytoplasmic reticulum, as Wilson has shown in the sea-urchin's egg. The rays abut the nuclear wall and indent it slightly. The archoplasmic mass now begins to elongate. Presently it assumes a dumb-bell shape, a bridge of delicate fibers showing between the two globes. Each of the globes now contains a centrosome (centriole of Boveri) surrounded by a centrosphere and astral rays. The two centrosomes separate more and more, moving over the surface of the nucleus, their astral radiations elongate and press upon the nuclear wall, indenting it deeper and deeper until it finally ruptures, allowing thus an intermingling of cytoplasm and nuclear content. Rupture seems to be due to pressure plus some solvent influence of the rays. It is apparent that no part of the achromatic structure of the first polar spindle came from within the nucleus, for the wall in some cases is still intact when the two centrosomes and asters (from which the spindle is spun) are already formed (fig. 50). While the centrospheres enlarge and the astral rays lengthen, the latter also increase perceptibly in thickness. This is particularly true of the traction fibers (Zugfasern), to which the chromosomes become attached and by which they are drawn into the central spindle (figs. 51, 52, 61, 62). The spindle is spun between the two centrosomes by the union of the astral rays very much in the manner described by Child (1896) in *Arenicola marina*. The outermost rays and those that do not unite or blend to form the fibers of the central spindle interdigitate with each other in the median plane (figs. 52, 64). The astral rays merge at their distal ends into the general cytoreticulum. When the first polar spindle is fully formed the centrospheres have a reticular or alveolar structure, and occasionally two centrosomes are seen (fig. 66).

NUCLEOLAR CHANGES.

When maturation is imminent the nucleolus is usually in a position on that side of the nucleus nearest the cell wall (fig. 37, 50). In this position many of the astral rays of the first polar spindle are extended directly upon it (figs. 53, 58, 59). The fact that the nucleolus as well as the mass of chromosomes and the occasional problematical body are all concentrated into this narrow space, combined with the further fact that the nucleolus begins to fragment and the chromosomes to scatter among these fragments, while the astral rays are extended among them indiscriminately, makes it difficult ordinarily to trace the fate of these several structures. However, exceptionally favorable conditions permit of observations which leave no doubt as to the correct interpretation of the more complicated processes. Particularly favorable for such study is the condition where the chromosome mass and nucleolus at the beginning of maturation are widely separated (figs. 32, 38, 43, 46, 47, 48, 49).

Very evident is the fact that the nucleolus undergoes dissolution. The first stage of this dissolution is a fragmentation into larger and smaller masses (figs. 46, 47, 48, 53, 58). Less evident is the ultimate fate of the nucleolar fragments. Even before the rupture of the nuclear wall the initial stages of the nucleolar dissolution begin (figs. 43, 50). It is usually consummated by the time that the first polar spindle has revolved into the radial position, all traces of either the plastin or chromatin elements of the nucleolus having been lost. Occasionally, however, a small chromatic nucleolus, "metanucleus," persists for a considerably longer time, even until the first polar body is formed (figs. 55, 60, 61, 62). It is ultimately also resorbed by the cytoplasm of the egg and is never seen until the first segmentation, when it is passed to one of the blastomeres, as described by Wheeler (1895) for *Myzostoma glabrum* (here persisting to 8-cell stage).

The dissolution of the nuclear wall and the fragmentation of the nucleolus are synchronous processes. Undoubtedly both these processes contribute to the decided change that the nuclear reticulum now undergoes. Immediately prior to maturation the nuclear reticulum was achromatic and wide-meshed (figs. 32, 35, 38). By the time the nuclear wall has partially disappeared the network becomes markedly close-meshed and chromatic (figs. 51, 52, 53, 54, 55). The meshwork takes on a characteristic beaded structure. Such nuclear residuum (always closer meshed and deeper staining in iron hematoxylin than the surrounding cytoplasm) is clearly seen to persist until the time the first polar body is fully formed (figs. 52, 63). It accompanies the polar spindle in its progress to the periphery of the egg. The major mass lies about the central pole, closely surrounding it and forming a mantle about the spindle to about the middle, and parts of it are seen even as far peripheralward as the distal pole of the spindle (fig. 67). Conklin (1905) in *Cynthia* and *Ciona,* and Lillie (1906) in *Chætopterus,* have described this "residual substance" of the nucleus in detail and have succeeded in tracing it through the early ontogenetic stages following fertilization. I was unable satisfactorily to trace the "residual substance" in the eggs of *Asterias forbesii* beyond the stage when the second polar spindle was being formed (figs. 70, 71). It appears that at this stage it becomes assimilated with the cytoplasm, probably contributing thereto the chromatin that it received from the nucleolus at the time of its dissolution and so playing the rôle of a "formative stuff."

The nucleolar fragmentation and dissolution may occur in several different ways. Usually the nucleolus breaks up into several larger masses and from these the chromatin gradually escapes in the shape of granules (viscid drops) leaving the several large masses of plastin ground-substance (figs. 50, 52, 53, 54). Sometimes all the chromatin leaves the plastin nucleolus in a mass (fig. 38) and subsequently breaks up in the nucleus, the plastin being gradually resorbed by the protoplasm. Sometimes the plastin ground-sub-

stance is vacuolated and frequently it is very finely alveolar or apparently homogeneous (figs. 38, 48). Sometimes the chromatin condenses in the center of this plastin mass, leaving numerous vacuoles behind and subsequently fragments leave the main mass. Sometimes the chromatin breaks up into numerous small spherical bodies scattered over the plastin. Again, small masses of chromatin leave the nucleolus one after another, each leaving a vacuole behind (here the chromatin was partly held as viscid drops in the form of spherules in the plastin) until all the chromatin is extracted from the plastin. All of the above processes of nucleolar dissolution are apparently normal. There appears to be absolutely no uniformity in the manner in which the nucleolus dissolves. The important thing seems to be that the nucleolus should break up at maturation and be prepared for appropriation and assimilation by different parts of the egg, the manner of its dissolution having no significance. In all cases a plastin remnant is left behind by the chromatin, which appears to have no further function, but is straightway resorbed by the cytoplasm (figs. 52, 54). The chromatin, on the other hand, is distributed partly to the chromosomes, partly to the nuclear reticulum, and occasionally persists in part as a "metanucleus."

THE ORIGIN OF THE CHROMOSOMES.

Concerning the origin of the chromosomes of the first maturation spindle, varying opinions are held by different investigators, even regarding very closely allied animal species. Some maintain that the chromosomes arise exclusively from the nucleolus; others hold that the nucleolus contributes nothing to their formation; and a third class holds that they arise in part from the nucleolus and in part from the nuclear reticulum. A brief survey of recent expressions of opinion on this point is desirable here, particularly because I believe that my results indicate that the divergence of opinion is not as great as at first appears, and that a nucleolar origin of chromosomes does not really involve the question of the individuality of the chromosomes, as some investigators have recently held in several cases where the chromosomes seemed to arise from the nucleolus.

Among botanists a similar difference of opinion has arisen. Wager, in his recent paper on the nucleolus in the root-tip cells of *Phaseolus,* gives an excellent review of the literature on the nucleolus in the plant-cell. He concludes that the nucleolus in many of the higher plants is really a portion of the nuclear network and that it contributes some material at least to the formation of the chromosomes.

Manifestly where the nucleolus is a simple plastin body the question as to its relation to the chromosomes does not arise. In amphibia, where many chromatin nucleoli are present, this point has been much discussed. O. Schultze (1887) states that in the ova of *Rana* and *Triton* the nucleolar substance takes part in the formation of the chromosomes. Born (1894) is

of the contrary opinion. Carnoy and Lebrun (1897–1899) state their conclusion concerning amphibia that the chromosomes are derived from the nucleoli. Their figures are very convincing on this point. Macallum (1891) believes that the chromosomes have a double origin in amphibia. Jordan (1893), basing his opinion on observations made on the ova of the newt, believes that the nucleolar particles do not contribute to the formation of the chromosomes. Lubosch (1902), in the case of the ova of *Triton,* states: "Es ist sicher, dass die in diesen Stadium (maturation) vorkommeden Chromosomen zum Theil nukleolären Ursprung haben" (p. 250), thus agreeing substantially with Schultze.

Holl (1893), investigating the ovum of the mouse, finds that the central granules of the nucleolus wander out and so become chromosomes. Sobotta (1895), on the other hand, holds that the chromosomes are not derived from the nucleoli only, but from the whole chromatic substance of the nucleus.

According to K. Foote and E. E. Strobel (1905), the chromosomes of the first maturation spindle in the annelid *Allobophora fœtida,* "are formed by a gradual segregation of the chromatin, which is dispersed through the germinal vesicle," the nucleolus meanwhile persisting in its original form and size. The chromosomes are thus not formed at the expense of the nucleolus. Similar conclusions were reached by Korschelt (1895) in the case of the annelid *Ophryotrocha,* and by Wheeler (1897) for *Myzostoma,* and by Griffin (1899) for *Thalassema.* There seems to be almost complete agreement among investigators that in annelids the chromosomes are not derived from the nucleolus. Coe (1899) inclines to this opinion also in the case of *Cerebratulus,* as also Gathy (1900) for *Tubifex* and Van Beneden (1883) for *Ascaris megalocephala.* However, in the case of *Chætopterus,* according to the figures of F. Lillie (1906), the chromosomes find at least a partial source of origin in the nucleolus; also Vejdovsky (1888), who studied the ova of *Rhynchelmis,* and Blockman (1882), who investigated *Neritina,* incline to a nucleolar origin of the chromosomes. Both Halkin (1901) and Goldschmidt (1902), as a result of their study of the ova of the trematode *Polystomum integerrimum,* hold that the chromosomes are derived exclusively from the nucleolus.

Results of recent observations on echinoderm eggs point to at least a partial nucleolar origin of the chromosomes in the various forms. R. Hertwig (1896) studied the unfecundated eggs of the sea-urchin and the starfish poisoned with strychnine. He states that the nucleolus vanishes within the nucleus as the chromosomes appear, and he holds the opinion that the chromosomes receive a portion of their substance—"notwendiger Ergänzungs material"—from the disappearing nucleolus. E. B. Wilson (1901) finds two widely different types of chromosome formation in the eggs of the sea-urchin (*Toxopneustes variegatus*) artificially fertilized by Loeb's magnesium chloride method. The two types, however, did not coexist in the

same series of eggs. In one type the chromosomes arose from the nuclear reticulum (here the nucleolus was a plasmosome), in the other from a chromatin nucleolus. *Asterias* presents no condition which can be reconciled with either of the types described and figured by Wilson.

Max Hartmann (1902) concludes for *Asterias glacialis* that "during the growth-period of the ovarian eggs there occur 'vegetative nuclear alterations,' the distribution of chromatin substance in the nucleus, and accumulation of the same in the nucleolus. At the end of this period all the chromatin and plastin is combined in the nucleolus, and out of this there arise at the time of the shedding of eggs into the water with the appearance of an astral structure and dissolution of the germinal vesicle, *the chromosomes of first maturation division.*"

K. Guenther (1903) reports the following in the case of *Psamechinus microtuberculatus* and *Holothuria tubulosa:* "Der Nucleolus stellt einen vom Kerngerüst ausgeschiedenen Tropfen, in den das Chromatin hineindringt um sich in ihn zu sondern und für seine Theilung zu ordnen," p. 23. He holds that the chromatin of the germinal vesicle is collected and stored in the nucleolus during the growth-period of the oöcyte, that it undergoes there possibly some physical and chemical changes, and so wanders forth again at the time of maturation to give rise to the chromosomes of the first division. He remarks further that the "Chromatinfaden (hat) bei seinen Auswanderung eine kleine Vacuole zurückgelassen, und wenn nun bei diese der Kernsaft eintritt, so ist am Raum nicht verloren."

T. H. Bryce (1903) states that in *Echinus esculentus* "the chromatin substance is at first confined to the nucleolus, and later leaves it to form the chromatin basis of the nuclear network as a whole and therefore also of the future chromosomes," but adds that the nature of his material makes it impossible for him to deny or affirm the direct origin of the chromosomes from the nucleolus.

My own observations on the eggs of *Asterias forbesii* establish beyond a doubt, I believe, the fact that while the chromosomes often *appear* to arise from within the nucleolus, as described by Hartmann (1902) and Guenther (1903) in certain echinoderms, they never really penetrate beyond the surface of the nucleolus, at least to the extent that their individuality is lost and their substance merged into the common chromatin substance of the nucleolus. Study of the different stages throughout the growth-period shows that the chromosomes always retain their identity, though they are greatly decreased in size, and they mass together into a clump which often attaches itself closely to the nucleolus, from whence the chromosomes pass into the spindle during early stages of maturation. This phenomenon of chromosome disposition is very similar to what Conklin (1903) has described in *Crepidula* and Lillie (1906) in *Chætopterus.* According to the former, "the chromosomes, which are at first widely scattered through the nucleus,

gather together more closely and often lie immediately around and upon the nucleolus. In some cases it looks as if these chromosomes were being formed out of the substance of the nucleolus . . . and though it is possible that they may later receive substance from the dissolving nucleolus, it is impossible to suppose that they are fragments of the nucleolus." The latter states in the case of *Chætopterus* that "the chromosomes begin to separate from the surface of the nucleolus as soon as the wall of the germinal vesicle is ruptured, and the nucleolus (in consequence?) appears shrunken and vacuolated" (p. 176).

In *Asterias forbesii* I found many eggs in which the relation between the chromosomes and nucleolus was far less intimate than that described above in the case of *Crepidula* and *Chætopterus*. Indeed, numerous transition stages were found between such in which the nucleolus and chromosomes were at opposite poles of the nucleus and such in which the chromosome mass was closely applied to the nucleolar surface. Figures 38, 41, 42, 43, show such transition stages. In figure 46 the fragmenting nucleolus was at the pole nearest to the aster and its rays were seen really to touch the chromatin mass. The chromosome group was near the opposite pole of the nucleus. No chromosomes or chromatin masses could be found among the astral rays. This is additional proof that no chromosome could come from the nucleolus alone. In another case, where the nucleolus was breaking up at the opposite pole of the nucleus, while the chromosome group was situated next the aster, some chromosomes were seen among the rays (figs. 47, 48). These could not under the circumstances have come from the nucleolus. In these cases the chromosomes are always very small.

Where the separation of the nucleolus and chromosome mass is of less distance there is very clearly evident a tendency for the two to get into more intimate connection. Frequently a chromatin thread is seen to pass out from the nucleolus (figs. 30, 31, 32, 36). Delicate threads of chromatin and small chromatin masses are also seen to pass from the nucleolus into the nuclear reticulum (figs. 35, 38, 49) to which they probably give its darker staining capacity, which is seen to progressively increase at this time. Where the distance between the nuceolus and chromosome mass just previous to maturation is slight there is usually a chromatin cross-connection between the two. It appears very probable that the normal condition is a very close connection between nucleolus and chromosomes (figs. 37, 41). Perhaps if the eggs had been allowed to be shed and mature normally, a very close connection between nucleolus and chromosomes would in all cases have been established before the chromosomes were drawn into the spindle. It is possible that in these artificially matured eggs sufficient time had not been given for the two to draw together. That eggs in which such close connection is not attained may still mature normally is proved by many

instances where the chromosomes thus related to the nucleolus do still pass into and help complete the first maturation spindle. The point of importance seems to be that some connection, however remote, be established whereby chromatin may be transferred from the nucleolus to the chromosomes. Such cross-connections of chromatin are very frequent and conspicuous. There remains little doubt that the arrangement signifies a transfer of matter from the nucleolus to the chromosomes. Moreover, the chromosomes, in cases where such connections are made, always increase in size before they pass to the spindle. Where the chromosomes are in such intimate relation with the nucleolus that they detach themselves from it at maturation (figs. 51, 52, 58, 59) they are frequently seen to draw out the chromatin after them, thus giving the appearance of coming from out of the nucleolus (figs. 52, 54). The entire body of the nucleolus is broken up at this time, and each particle, with its plastin ground-substance and some of the fragments, is drawn toward the spindle, only, however, to contribute their substance to the growing chromosomes or to be eventually resorbed by the cytoplasm. What chromatin is not thus disposed of for the time being may be retained as a small spherical nucleolus lying in the residual substance of the nucleus until about the time that the second polar spindle is formed (fig. 60). It seems important to emphasize again that in *Asterias forbesii* the chromosomes are not derived from out of the nucleolus, but that a close connection is generally established between the two, for the purpose of bringing about a transfer of chromatin material, the chromosomes in consequence increasing in size during the early maturation stage.

THE POLAR SPINDLE AND POLAR BODIES.

After an interval of from 30 to 45 minutes the first polar spindle is formed. The transfer of the chromosomes from the nucleus to the complete spindle is effected in from 20 to 30 minutes. The process appears to be as follows: While the asters are still close together their rays have penetrated into the nucleus and some of these (Zugfasern) have become attached to the chromosomes. Which is the active factor in effecting a connection I have been unable to determine. It seems likely, however, that the astral rays seek the chromosomes (largely a fortuitous matter, except that the two are normally always in the same vicinity of the nucleus) rather than the reverse. As the chromosomes are becoming attached to the rays, the asters gradually move apart, progressively decreasing the angle at which the rays spring from the centrospheres and so drawing the chromosomes into the spindle, whose rays are now approximately horizontal to the periphery of the egg and parallel to each other. The astral rays become arranged parallel to each other and continuous from one centrosphere to the other by blending of those from separate asters to form the central spindle. Some of the spindle fibers are clearly stouter than others, and it seems very probable that here

also, as Child holds in the case of *Arenicola marina*, several fibers may have united into one. Some of the astral rays interdigitate above the equatorial plate. All seem to merge into the cytoreticulum. Frequent cross-connections are seen. The central ends of the rays are seen to penetrate for some distance into the centrosphere, but they could never be traced as far as the central granules (centrosome). It is very probable that the rays are centrally continuous with the reticulum (very delicate, and sometimes alveolar in structure) of the centrosphere. The spindle now begins to rotate and ultimately assumes a radial position. This rotation is effected very rapidly. In 10 to 15 minutes more the first polar body is fully formed. Thus it requires about 1 hour for the first polar body to form, which agrees with what was observed in the case of living eggs. To recapitulate, the single aster appears about 10 minutes after transference of the eggs to sea-water. At twenty minutes there are two asters some distance apart, with rays extending through the ruptured nuclear wall and becoming attached to the growing chromosomes. At 45 minutes the first polar spindle is fully formed and in process of rotation. The last 20 or 30 minutes represent the prophase of maturation. The spindle moves rapidly into a radial position, metaphase and anaphase are passed through very quickly, and after 60 minutes the first polar body is fully formed.

In the radial position, the spindle is at first comparatively slender and sharply pointed at the ends (figs. 66, 67). The central sphere often contains two centrosomes (fig. 66). The spindle moves bodily toward the periphery and as it approaches the cell-wall it becomes stouter, somewhat barrel-shaped, slightly shorter, and its ends less pointed (fig. 69). This change of shape and size is undoubtedly due to the resistance met with by the spindle in its passage through the cytoplasm. The outwardly pointing rays of the distal pole disappear, the horizontal rays are at first bent inward, and all eventually disappear into the cytoreticulum as the outer pole of the spindle is forced out of the egg to form the first polar body (fig. 70). The rays of the central aster have also meanwhile become shorter and less definite, while the centrosphere has become more reticular, somewhat flattened, very much less definite, and in the later stages of the first polar spindle is scarcely to be recognized. In the late anaphase the spindle exhibits a distinct mid-body (Zwischenkorper) in the form of swellings or small granules in the equatorial plane of the spindle. This marks the line of division between the first polar body and the central pole of the spindle. Traces of spindle fibers are at first visible in the first polar body, but these gradually disappear, and the chromosomes (about 18 double dumb-bell-shaped bodies, often assuming the form of "tetrads") are seen to lie in a homogeneous or finely granular light-staining substance (figs. 70, 71). In my study of the living eggs I found a single instance of a division of the first polar body. Study of sectioned material failed to contribute a duplicate of this solitary example.

Cases of undoubted abortive attempts (fig. 74) at a division were seen, but never a consummation of such process. The isolated case, therefore, must stand as an exception to the ordinary process of maturation.

The second polar body is constricted off in about 30 minutes after the first is formed. The process of spindle formation must here be very rapid. As far as I know, the process of spindle formation between the two centrosomes of the central pole of the first spindle has never been described in echinoderms. Miss Hogue figures a second maturation spindle in tangential position and believes she has evidence that the spindle is always so formed and subsequently revolves into radial position (p. 525). Mathews (1895) states that "the outer centrosome of the second polar spindle is formed at the 'Zwischenkörper' of the first" (p. 334). All the evidence that my study of this stage yields tends to corroborate the correctness of Mathews's observation. Figures 70 and 71 seem to show transition stages of such process. The evidence from these figures, coupled with the fact that the actual formation and growth of the second spindle at the pole of the first has never been seen, renders it very plausible that the second spindle is formed as described by Mathews. Furthermore, the central portion of the first spindle is never seen to disappear, and after the second spindle is fully formed two centrosomes are still often seen in the centrosphere. It is strikingly characteristic of the second spindle that it usually bends to one side of the first polar body, the second being then extruded to one side of the first (fig. 74). Such oblique position of the second polar spindle seems to add evidence in favor of a rotation from a tangential position, but facts like those just recorded render the normally tangential origin of the second polar spindle very improbable. The second polar spindle is somewhat shorter and slighter in bulk than the first (figs. 71, 72, 73). It again shows very conspicuously a mid-body composed of granules on the spindle fibers in the equatorial plane (fig. 73). The second polar body is constricted off along the line of the mid-body (fig. 74). It is slightly smaller than the first polar body and contains 18 single small dumb-bell-shaped chromosomes. In other respects it is similar to the first polar body. The chromosomes soon lose their dumb-bell shape and become short, stout rods or spherical masses. At this stage the chromosomes of the first polar body have assumed similar shapes or occasionally have become massed into two larger clumps connected by a strand of chromatin (figs. 73, 74). The eighteen dumb-bell-shaped chromosomes remaining in the egg after the second polar body is formed undergo similar transformations as those in the polar bodies, becoming short, stout, cubical bodies or small spheres (fig. 75). The centrosomes have disappeared from view and distinct trace of the centrosphere is lost. The astral rays still persist and are often seen to accompany the female pronucleus up to the time of fertilization, so that the egg-nucleus seems to be provided with an aster of its own, as also reported by Tennent (1906) in

some cases. The female pronucleus is formed from the fusion of five or six vesicles, the product of transformation of the eighteen chromosomes remaining in the egg after maturation.

At no stage in the maturation process are all of the chromosomes at the same stage of transformation. Almost every spindle shows several chromosomes lagging far behind (figs. 64, 67, 68, 73). This explains why the counting of the chromosomes in polar view becomes difficult, not to mention their minute size. The most favorable sections for counts are such as pass longitudinally through the poles of a prophase figure. Since the chromosomes are scattered through the equatorial plane, sections of from 7 to 10 microns often include the major part of all the chromosomes. Such sections almost invariably show 18 chromosomes in prophase (fig. 64). Similar sections through the anaphase stages again invariably show 18 chromosomes. The number could never be made less than 18; frequently in the anaphase of the first division 20 (occasionally even 24) V-shaped and bilobed chromosomes were counted, but these counts could usually be satisfactorily reduced to the usual number by taking into account the fact that some had prematurely split in preparation for the second mitosis. Polar views of either the prophase or anaphase stage also never showed less than 18 chromosomes. This exact number could frequently be counted (figs. 76, 77, 80), but in such sections even more frequently than in longitudinal sections of the spindle the number counted was 20 (fig. 79), 22, 23 (fig. 78), or even as high as 24 chromosomes. It is very evident that premature splittings of bivalent or univalent chromosomes—the normal process in the first maturation division—would raise the count in such sections and show wide and illusive variations in number. The best evidence shows that the reduced number of chromosomes is 18.

THE REDUCTION OF THE CHROMOSOMES.

The maturation phenomena of *Asterias forbesii* agree with those reported by Bryce in *Echinus* and likewise present a simple case of double longitudinal division. My results are at variance with those reported by Tennent (1905) for this same species. Tennent describes the second maturation division as transverse, separating bilobed chromosomes into chromosomes of globular shape. I have conclusive evidence (figs. 73, 74) that the chromosomes resulting from the second polar mitosis are also for some time after their separation bilobed (dumb-bell-shaped) bodies and only subsequently become stubby or globular. The fact that the eggs observed by Tennent had undergone previous treatment with CO_2 in sea-water, which seems to have greatly retarded the maturation process (40 minutes according to Tennent), may account for the discrepancy in appearance of the chromosomes. It is possible that in the CO_2 treated eggs the bilobed chromosomes had become globular proportionately earlier—in consequence of a much slower transit toward the spindle poles—than in eggs under normal conditions.

The fact that the early segmentation stages give a chromosome count in the prophase of approximately 36 indicates that the 18 bilobed chromosomes of the first maturation prophase are mostly, if not entirely, bivalents. Moreover, their double character is occasionally plainly evident (figs. 64, 65). However, since synapsis could not be observed, no conclusive evidence appears as to the valency of the chromosomes, nor as to whether the chromosomes coupled endwise or sidewise, nor in which direction the condensation occurred to give rise to the bilobed form; hence no positive statement is justified as to whether the reduction is quantitative or qualitative. If the chromosomes fused side by side in synapsis and the bivalents were so transformed into a bilobed body that each globe can be represented by *AB*, then the double longitudinal division effects a true reduction, and the resulting chromosomes are *A*'s and *B*'s. If one globe represents *A* and the other *B*, then the resulting chromosomes are *AB*'s. Similar possibilities result from a double longitudinal division if the synapsis was endwise.

FUNCTION OF THE NUCLEOLUS.

As to the function of the nucleolus in the germinal vesicle, besides giving rise to the chromosomes, various opinions are held by different writers, some ascribing to it an incidental rôle in conjunction with chromosome formation, others a very definite rôle exclusive thereof. I shall not undertake to give a full discussion of so complicated and difficult a subject. I desire merely to call attention to a few of the most divergent views in regard to this enigmatical cell-constituent and harmonize my own observation with one or the other of these.

Pfitzner (1883), basing his opinion on his investigation of the ectodermal cells of *Hydra*, makes the generalization that the nucleolus has merely a passive function in mitosis: "die einer aufgespeicherten Nahrungs-materials zur Neubildung von Chromatin." He terms the nucleolar substance "prochromatin," since he finds that in mitosis it changes into chromatin. Schneider (1901) thinks that the large nucleoli of echinoderm eggs are but reserve masses of chromatin. The experiments with artificially fertilized echinoderm eggs by R. Hertwig (1895) and Wilson (1901) seem to confirm the validity of Schneider's view, at least under certain conditions. Rhumbler (1893) says: "Mir scheinen die Binnenkorper (nucleoli) Reservestoffe darzustellen, die für Zeit aufgespeichert werden, wo die Theilung eine grosse Zunahme des Vererbungs Apparates bez. des Idioplasm im Sinne Weismann's erfordert, wo aber diese Stoffe nicht rasch genug durch die Zellmembran hundurch Nahrung finden können."

Häcker (1895) states that in *Æquorea* and in various annelids and echinoderms "the nucleolus is cast out bodily into the cytoplasm, afterwards lying there for some time as a 'metanucleus' before degenerating. In these cases the chromosomes are formed independently of the nucleoli . . . it seems

quite certain that the nucleoli do not contribute to the formation of the chromosomes and that their substance represents passive material, which is of no further direct use." On the ground that in *Echinus* he found the large vacuole of the nucleolus contractile, he regarded the latter as an excretory organ collecting the by-products of nuclear activity.

E. B. Wilson (1896), agreeing with the conclusion of Häcker, states his opinion "that the nucleoli of the germ-cells are accumulations of by-products of the nuclear action, derived from the chromatin either by direct transformation of its substance or as chemical cleavage products, or secretions."

Certain observers, notably Flemming, O. and R. Hertwig, and Carnoy, regard the nucleoli as storehouses of material—paranuclein and plastin—which plays an active rôle in nuclear activity in contributing to the formation of chromosomes during division. Strasburger (1895) considers the nucleoli storehouses of active material which he calls "kinoplasm," and which he thinks gives rise to the achromatic part of the division figure, Hautschicht, membrane, and cilia.

Montgomery (1899), in his masterly work, "Comparative Cytological studies, etc.," gives a very complete review of the literature on the nucleolus. As the result of his own observation he is led to consider the nucleoli of egg-cells and somatic cells in the Metazoa as homologous cell organs. He regards the nucleoli "as extranuclear in origin, and not a secretion or excretion of the nuclei . . . consisting of a substance or different substances, taken into the nucleus from the cell-body." He thinks it probable that "these substances stand in some relation to the nutritive process of the nucleus."

According to Fick (1899) the nucleolus is simply a storehouse or laboratory of nuclein. Bryce (1903) combines the views of Strasburger and Fick in regard to the nucleolus in *Echinus esculentus*.

My study of the nucleolus (germinal spot) in the egg of *Asterias forbesii*, both in the living and fixed condition, yields no evidence in support of either Häcker's "Kernsecret-theorie" or Strasburger's "kinoplasmic" theory. Nor do my results accord with the view of Bryce in so far as he adds the "kinoplasmic" to the "storehouse" theory, to explain the nucleolar function in *Echinus*. The evidence above given is conclusive, I believe, that in *Asterias* the nucleolus is a storehouse of reserve chromatin. This is demonstrated to be true by the fact that just previous to maturation connections are established by virtue of which chromatin material passes from the nucleolus to the chromosomes and in consequence of which the latter grow in size. In view of the fact that the chromosomes never really enter the nucleolus, it is very doubtful whether any "idioplasm," as Rhumbler believes, is stored in the nucleolus. I believe that all the hereditary elements are persistently held by the chromosomes whatever their various size and form throughout the growth-period of the eggs, and that these merely receive

nutritive material from the nucleolus. That only a small portion of the chromatin material of the nucleolus is contributed to the growth of the chromosomes is very clear, but whether the extra portion of matter is similar in chemical nature to that which goes into the chromosomes, and whether this material changes its chemical nature on entering the chromosomes, I am unable to determine, staining reaction giving no indication of such a change. It is possible that some of the chromatin-like material stored in the nucleolus is waste material and the product of metabolic process of the growing egg. The fact that this residue, as well as the plastin ground-substance, are both ultimately resorbed by the cytoplasm gives some color to this latter view. However, it seems more probable that all the material (chromatin as well as plastin) is of closely similar chemical composition and has similar nutritive value, whether it passes into the chromosomes or cytoplasm of the mature egg. It seems more reasonable that excretion products consequent upon cell metabolism should be voided continually, instead of being stored in the same structure in common with the undoubted nutritive material. Moreover, I have no evidence to show any direct genetic relation between the material of the disappearing nucleolus and the achromatic structure of the egg.

The nature of my material has made it impossible for me to trace the origin of the nucleolus from its earliest stages, but the fact that for a time it appears to grow by additions of material from without the nucleus (as indicated by the varying staining reaction of the cytoplasm during the growth-period of the oöcyte) adds support to Montgomery's view that the nucleoli of all cells are of extranuclear origin. The nucleolus increases in size still more by the addition of the chromatin surrendered by the post-synaptic spireme as it segments and condenses into chromosomes. What the chemical alterations which accompany this local change and morphological transformation of the chromatin are it is idle to conjecture.

If my interpretation of the vacuoles which are seen in the nucleoli of the living egg is correct, the chromatin at first enters the nucleolus in the shape of spherules or fluid drops of chromatin. This fluid chromatin is continually imbibed by the plastin ground-substance, which increases in amount as the chromatin content increases, being probably manufactured by the chromatin and, as also the linin, representing probably merely a different phase of the same substance. During this local change the chromatin seems to alter its physical composition from a fluid to a more or less viscid constituency. The vacuoles that appear in the sectioned oöcytes, and which take a stain similar to that of the underlying plastin, thus represent the remains of the spherules of fluid chromatin after this has been incorporated into the main mass of the nucleolus. Fusion of several such spherules will leave large vacuoles in the nucleolus. When all of the spherules are entirely filled with chromatin, sections of such nucleoli stained with specific chromatin stains (such as iron hematoxylin) appear homogeneous. Stains for which

chromatin has no affinity reveal only the plastin portion of the nucleolus and as a much vacuolated structure.

All the data at my command as a result of the study of the egg of *Asterias forbesii* support the view that the nucleolus is a storehouse of reserve nutritive material, combining also the function of " nuclein laboratory " (Fick) in the sense that chemical alterations may transpire in the material while thus stored in the nucleolus.

COMPARISON WITH HIPPONOË ESCULENTA.

Material for a comparative study of the present problem in echinoderms was collected during a four weeks' stay at the Marine Biological Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington at Dry Tortugas, Florida. It was my intention to extend the investigation over many different forms. Among at least ten different genera sufficiently abundant and apparently equally favorable for similar study, *Hipponoë esculenta* alone had ripe eggs at the time I left the island on June 13. From the appearance of the gonads at that time it seemed probable that most of these forms would not ripen their eggs for several months.

Hipponoë esculenta was apparently at the height of its breeding season during May and the early part of June. Due to the smaller size of the egg, and particularly to the fact that the oöcytes mature in the ovary, this form is much less favorable for a study of the maturation phenomena than *Asterias,* where the process takes place after spawning and can be readily observed and controlled in the free egg. Unsuccessful attempts were made to induce the immature oöcyte of *Hipponoë* in sea-water to form the polar bodies by agitation, the addition of sperm, and the addition of various salts and acids. However, the addition of a drop of HCl to a dish of sea-water containing mature eggs caused a small percentage to develop through the early cleavage stages. Controls of eggs from the same batch and in the same water without the HCl showed no segmentation stages.

As in *Asterias,* there is in the ovary of *Hipponoë* a striking lack of transition stages between the oögonia and the full-grown primary oöcyte, giving evidence of the great brevity of the growth-process. The infrequency of the oöcytes in maturation shows that this process also is consummated very quickly. Batches of eggs taken from the ovary of even the smallest specimen yielded at the highest only about 10 per cent of immature ova. In the larger specimens all the ova were fully matured. A section through the ovary of the latter revealed a layer of oögonial cells, a few immature full-grown oöcytes, and a large number of mature ova. The female pronucleus is comparatively larger than that of *Asterias,* and it is characteristically devoid of a nucleolus (fig. 95). Toto mounts of eggs show two small polar bodies. Sections of the first polar body reveal an attempt at a second division (fig. 94).

The primary oöcyte near the end of the growth-period has a large eccentrically located nucleus. The nuclear network is wholly achromatic and enmeshes several chromatin nucleoli. The number of nucleoli at this stage (fig. 87) is never less than two and more frequently six or more, all without vacuoles. As development proceeds, the oöcytes enlarge slightly in size. There appears now a progressive increase in the amount of chromatin (fig. 88). The nuclear network becomes more closely meshed and the threads become stout and intensely chromatic (fig. 89). A single nucleolus only remains. A slightly later stage (fig. 90) shows the same process merely carried to a greater degree. The nuclear reticulum, furthermore, appears arranged in the form of a stout spireme. The single nucleolus still persists.

In a succeding stage (fig. 91) the nucleolus has entirely disappeared. The chromatin network has become arranged in a tangled knot and the astral rays of the first polar spindle are pushing upon the fading nuclear wall. The single(?) spireme breaks up into a number of chromosomes (fig. 92), which are drawn as bilobed bodies into the equatorial plane of the first polar spindle (fig. 93). The achromatic parts of the spindle are very coarse and distinct. As in *Asterias,* here, also, the first maturation spindle is somewhat larger than the second. There is no indication of the persistence of the central aster of the second polar spindle about the female pronucleus, as was noted in the case of *Asterias.* Due to the very minute size of the chromosomes, both in the maturation and cleavage divisions, the exact number could not be counted, nor could the manner of the reduction be definitely determined. The reduced number of the chromosomes lies somewhere between 16 and 20. Some evidence appears here also to indicate that the reduction is accomplished by a double longitudinal division of the original bivalent chromosomes. Figure 93 shows the elements of a postsynaptic chromosome drawing apart, with each element at the beginning of a longitudinal fission. The chromosomes in the anaphase of the second polar spindle are still bilobed and so support the hypothesis of a second longitudinal division.

In the case of *Hipponoë esculenta* it is clear that the chromosomes originated proximately from the nuclear reticulum of the full-grown primary oöcyte. It is equally clear that ultimately they received much (possibly all) of the chromatin from the disappearing nucleoli. Hipponoë thus agrees with *Asterias* in the essential point that the chromosomes do not originate from within the nucleoli, but that the latter contribute chromatin (in *Hipponoë* much; in *Asterias* little) to them prior to their entrance into the first polar spindle. A marked difference in the process between these two forms is in regard to the time when the chromosomes are first formed. In *Asterias* they appear very early in the growth-period and persist as individual bodies until maturation. In *Hipponoë* the chromosomes arise from the segmenting chromatin spireme, which makes its appearance only toward the close of the growth-period. There is a general similarity of the

main processes, but a slight variation in details, together with a non-correspondence in the time of occurrence of the successive stages.

On the question of the individuality of the chromosomes *Hipponoë* yields no positive results. Even in the late growth-period there is no indication of chromosomes as such. And it is clear that at least a large part of their chromatin is either contributed by the disappearing nucleoli or elaborated by the cell protoplasm. *Hipponoë* supports the conclusions drawn in regard to the function of the nucleolus in the case of *Asterias*, that it serves in part at least as a storehouse of nutritive material contributed to the chromosomes prior to maturation.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS ON ASTERIAS FORBESII.

1. Synizesis occurs in the oöcyte of the first order at the very beginning of the growth-period (size of nucleus 5 microns).

2. The growth-period is passed through rapidly. The single spireme of the contraction phase becomes double and segments into a number (18?) of irregularly shaped chromosomes. These decrease in size and collect in one or several masses of minute bilobed bodies in close proximity to or upon the nucleolus.

3. During the latter half of the growth-period all the chromatin, with the exception of what is held by the chromosomes, becomes stored in the enlarging nucleolus, the linin meshwork of the nucleus being left entirely achromatic shortly prior to maturation.

4. The nucleolus consists of a plastin ground-substance infiltrated and covered over with chromatin. In the living condition of the oöcyte the nucleolus appears vacuolated. The " vacuoles " are spherules of fluid chromatin, and where these are filled, properly stained sections reveal a homogeneous structure of the nucleolus. Linin, plastin ground-substance, and chromatin appear to represent closely related substances, possibly different phases of elaboration of the same fundamental material.

5. The chromosomes do *not* arise out of the nucleolus. The latter contributes nutritive substance to them, by virtue of which they increase slightly in size before entering the first maturation spindle.

6. The number of chromosomes in the prophase of the first polar mitosis is 18. They vary somewhat in size (one is considerably larger than the rest), all have a characteristic dumb-bell-shaped appearance, and some are clearly double (bivalent).

7. The two maturation divisions effect a double longitudinal fission of the original bilobed chromosomes. The reduced number of chromosomes is again 18.

8. Observations on *Hipponoë esculenta* agree in essential points with those made on *Asterias forbesii* and support the conclusions regarding the origin of the chromosomes, the function of the nucleolus, and the reduction phenomena.

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EXPLANATION OF PLATES.

PLATE 1.

FIG. 1. Sectional view of mass of oögonia; cell-boundaries are indistinct. × 2100.
FIG. 2. Primary oöcyte at the very beginning of the growth-period. Cell-outline indicated by dotted line. × 2100.
FIG. 3. Slightly later stage, showing decided increase in size of nucleus. × 2100.
FIG. 4. Still later stage, showing increase in amount of chromatin and the characteristic distribution of the same in masses along the nuclear membrane. × 2100.
FIG. 5. Oöcyte entering upon the contraction phase (synizesis, McClung). The spireme appears to arrange itself in two parallel strands. × 2100.
FIGS. 6, 7, 8, 9. Nuclei with chromatin threads in more or less complete synizesis. Linin network has become indistinguishable. × 2100.
FIG. 10. Oöcyte showing the spireme in complete synizesis. × 2100.
FIGS. 11, 12, 13. Oöcytes showing the first stages in the disentangling of the spireme from the contraction phase. Linin network faintly visible. × 2100.
FIGS. 14, 15. Nuclei showing still later stages in the disentangling of the spireme from synizesis. Nucleoli clearly visible. × 2100.
FIGS. 16, 17, 18. Oöcytes in which appear the first indications of a transverse segmentation of the apparently continuous spireme. × 2100.
FIGS. 19, 20, 21. Oöcytes showing a distinctly beaded character of the now discontinuous spireme. Occasional segments clearly indicate that the spireme has become double. × 2100.
FIGS. 22, 23. Oöcytes with chromosomes in form of beaded threads. A portion of the spireme appears still unsegmented and double. × 2100.
FIG. 24. Oöcyte in which some of the chromosomes have become condensed into irregular masses while others remain as beaded threads. × 1320.
FIG. 25. Oöcyte at slightly later stage, showing all the chromosomes in the form of condensed irregular chromatic masses. There are indications of ring, V, and dumb-bell shapes. Some of the chromosomes appear paired; all have a mossy or feathery outline under high magnification. × 2100.

PLATE 2.

FIGS. 26, 27. Young primary oöcytes, showing chromosomes in various stages of transformation from beaded threads to compact bilobed bodies. Many of the chromosomes appear disposed in pairs. × 1320.
FIG. 28. Oöcyte at a somewhat later stage. Attachment to ovarian stroma shown; also the enveloping connective tissue membrane. Chromosomes have dumb-bell and globular shape. Linin network conspicuous. Cytoplasm densely granular and deeply staining with basic dyes. × 1320.
FIG. 29. Primary oöcyte at late stage in growth-period. Chromosomes of irregular shapes scattered through the slightly chromatic linin network. Nucleolus very large and homogeneous. × 700.
FIG. 30. Oöcyte at stage just before maturation. The chromosomes, gathered into a single mass, are connected with the nucleolus by a double chromatic thread. × 700.
FIGS. 31, 32. Oöcytes at the stage just prior to maturation. The chromosome mass is in position next the cell periphery. The nucleolus and chromosome mass are connected by a chromatic thread. × 700.
FIGS. 33, 34. Oöcytes in which the chromosomes are collected in a mass close to the nucleolus. The puckering of the nuclear wall shows that maturation is imminent. The linin network still achromatic. Chromatin appears to leave the nucleolus in the form of drops. × 700.
FIGS. 35, 36. Oöcytes showing a connection in the form of a beaded chromatin thread between nucleolus and chromosomes. × 700.

FIG. 37. Oöcyte showing the passage of chromatin from nucleolus to adjacent chromosome group just prior to maturation. × 700.

FIG. 38. Nucleus in which the chromosome mass and nucleolus are at opposite poles. The chromosomes are in position to meet the polar spindle, which is about to form. The chromatin of the nucleolus is seen leaving the vacuolated plastin ground-substance (plasmosome) en masse and moving toward the chromosomes, at the same time contributing chromatin to the achromatic nuclear network. The peripheral layer of yolk granules is also shown. × 1320.

FIG. 39. Primary oöcyte at culmination of growth-period and some time prior to maturation. The eccentric nucleolus is homogeneous, with some of the chromosomes closely attached. The nuclear network is wide-meshed, beaded, and slightly chromatic, and with occasional karyosomes. The peripheral layer of the egg is filled with large yolk-granules. × 1320.

PLATE 3.

FIG. 40. Nucleus with chromosomes gathered into three groups (*a*, *b*, and *c*). These are enlarged at *a*, *b*, and *c*, × 2100. The majority of the chromosomes are bilobed. Their number is approximately 18. × 700.

FIG. 41. Oöcyte in which the chromosome mass lies very close to the nucleolus. × 440.

FIG. 42. Oöcyte showing the beginning of the establishment of a chromatin connection between nucleolus and chromosome group. × 440.

FIG. 43. Oöcyte in which the chromosome mass is less compact. Nucleolus is breaking up and establishing connection with the chromosomes. × 700.

FIG. 44. The above mass of chromosomes magnified × 2100. About 15 chromosomes may be counted.

FIG. 45. Cross-section of central pole of first maturation spindle after first polar body has been constricted off (this seen in next section), showing 20 chromosomes, the excess of 2 chromosomes above the usual number of 18, due to a premature longitudinal splitting of two of the elements. Compare with figure 44. × 2100.

FIG. 46. Maturing oöcyte in which spindle is forming and the astral rays have penetrated far into the nucleus. Both chromosome group and fragmenting nucleolus near distal pole of nucleus. There are no chromosomes among the rays in this or any of the adjacent sections. × 700.

FIG. 47. Oöcyte in initial stages of maturation, showing the nucleolus in transit toward the polar spindle, leaving a vacuole (the remains of the resorbed plastin ground-substance) and chromatin particles behind. The chromosome group has already separated and some of its elements have passed among the astral rays. × 700.

FIG. 48. Composite figure of two consecutive sections. Nucleolus seen to break up at one pole of the nucleus, leaving a plastin remnant. Spindle forming at opposite pole with several chromosomes already drawn toward it. × 700.

PLATE 4.

FIG. 49. Primary oöcyte showing nucleolus and chromosomes at opposite poles of nucleus. Maturation is imminent and the chromosomes are in proper position to be drawn into the spindle soon to appear. Chromatin in form of beaded threads is seen to pass from nucleolus toward chromosomes. × 700.

FIG. 50. Two centrospheres with centrosome and aster pushing into nucleus. Nuclear wall still intact. Nucleolus in process of dissolution. Two chromosomes are seen emerging from the mass. × 1320.

FIG. 51. Composite figure of three consecutive sections, showing one aster (*a*), a group of chromosomes scattering (several are detaching themselves from nucleolar mass of chromatin), and a spherical chromatin mass (*b*), and two additional spherical nucleolar masses (*c*). × 700.

FIG. 52. Chromosomes are entering the polar spindle. Last one in process of being detached from mass of disorganizing nucleolus. Nuclear network very close-meshed and highly chromatic. × 1320.

FIG. 53. Nuclear wall is ruptured. First polar spindle is being formed. Nucleolus is breaking up. Chromosomes are becoming attached to astral rays. Nuclear network is becoming close-meshed and more chromatic. × 1320.

FIG. 54. Entire nucleolar mass has moved toward asters, leaving a vacuole and chromatin particles behind. Chromosomes are being detached from nucleolus at upper border, and chromatin drops are passing out at lower border. × 1320.

FIG. 55. Chromosomes are entering the polar spindle. Nucleolus is fragmenting. "Metanucleus" persisting at left. Nuclear network is becoming close-meshed and chromatic. × 1320.

FIG. 56. Oöcyte in which chief nucleolus has given rise to many accessory nucleoli. These left chief nucleolus as drops (witness spherical form) and evidently manufactured their own ground-substance, from which the chromatin has in some cases become subsequently extracted. × 440.

FIG. 57. Cross-section of first maturation spindle near one of the poles, showing the chromosomes in process of transit into spindle (note size differences) and fragments of nucleolus. At right several chromosomes (?) arranged in manner of thread. These have not yet attained full size and final form. × 2100.

FIG. 58. One of the asters of the first polar spindle is shown. Its rays are directed upon the fragmenting nucleolus. Several chromosomes and plastin remnants are clearly distinguishable. × 1320.

FIG. 59. First polar spindle is forming. Chromosomes are detaching themselves from the irregular nucleolus. Nuclear membrane has entirely disappeared. Extent of residual substance indicated by dotted line. × 1320.

FIG. 60. Sectional view of median plane of first polar spindle. Chromosomes are in position on the spindle fibers. "Metanucleus" with outer chromatic ring persists in the residual substance of the nucleus. × 700.

PLATE 5.

FIG. 61. Oblique transverse section of spindle, showing the chromosomes in process of transit into the spindle by means of the astral rays. "Metanucleus" persists in the residual substance of the nucleus. × 1320.

FIG. 62. Chromosomes are being drawn into the spindle by means of the astral rays, to which they become attached. Two spherical chromatin masses ("metanuclei"), each in a vacuole, persist in the close-meshed, beaded chromatic residual substance. × 1320.

FIG. 63. Longitudinal section of first maturation spindle, showing the chromosomes entering the spindle (several have already become attached to the spindle and begun the first division), a plastin remnant, the residue of the fragmenting nucleolus, and the extent of the residual substance. × 1320.

FIG. 64. Median longitudinal section of the first maturation spindle tangential to surface of egg and in prophase. Centrosomes here very distinct and surrounded by finely alveolar centrospheres. Chromosomes not yet fully in spindle show beginning of longitudinal fission. × 2100.

FIG. 65. Tangential section of first polar spindle. Chromosomes not yet all on spindle; their bivalvent and bilobed character is plainly shown. The V-figures show the beginning of the first longitudinal fission. × 2100.

FIG. 66. First polar spindle with two centrosomes in central centrosphere. Rays of distal aster begin to disappear. Chromosomes in metaphase. One chromosome seen en face shows beginning of second longitudinal fission. × 2100.

FIG. 67. First polar spindle in early anaphase. Chromosomes mostly dumb-bell-shaped. To the right is a large undivided chromosome. × 2100.

FIGS. 68, 69. Two consecutive longitudinal sections of first polar spindle in anaphase. Spindle has become blunt and barrel-shaped. 68 shows at the right a figure representing the consummation of the first longitudinal fission giving rise to four globes in serial arrangement. Above and below this are pairs of smaller bilobed chromosomes representing the completion of the second longitudinal fission, preparatory to the second polar mitosis. In 69 the chromosomes for the most part are stubby or globular masses of chromatin. In the combined sections 20 chromosomes may be counted at each pole, representing, however, probably only 18 first maturation products. × 2100.

FIG. 70. First polar body completed. Second polar spindle is being formed, its distal pole arising in the region of the mid-body. Residual substance of nucleus still persists. Several of the chromosomes appear to be double (the result of a premature second longitudinal fission in the anaphase of the first mitosis). × 2100.

FIG. 71. Prophase of second polar mitosis. Several of the chromosomes are arranged radially on the spindle. Residual substance still persists. × 2100.

FIG. 72. Metaphase of second polar mitosis. The bilobed products of the premature fission of the anaphase of the first mitosis are simply drawn apart to opposite poles. × 2100.

FIG. 73. Late anaphase of the second polar mitosis. Many chromosomes still bilobed. Two chromosomes are seen to lag far behind. Mid-body again very conspicuous. × 2100.

FIG. 74. Telophase of second mitosis. Second polar body constricted off with mostly bilobed chromosomes. Those remaining in egg also bilobed or globular. The arrangement of the chromosomes in the first polar body indicates an abortive attempt at a division. × 2100.

FIG. 75. Female pronucleus forming as a vesicle containing the chromosomes, and surrounded by rays of central pole of second maturation spindle. × 2100.

PLATE 6.

FIGS. 76, 77. Cross-sections of prophase figures of first maturation mitosis with 18 chromosomes. × 1320.

FIG. 78. Two consecutive sections of a metaphase figure of first maturation spindle. Note size differences among the chromosomes. × 2100.

FIG. 79. Cross-section of prophase figure of first maturation spindle with 20 chromosomes. × 2100.

FIG. 80. Cross-section of distal pole of first maturation spindle at anaphase showing 18 chromosomes. × 1320.

FIG. 81. Female pronucleus with chromatin nucleolus and stout deep-staining network. × 1320.

FIGS. 82, 83, 84. Different types of female pronuclei, with plasmosomes showing variation in chromatin distribution over the linin network. × 1320.

FIG. 85. Fertilized ovum showing the male and female pronuclei, both with plastin nucleoli (plasmosomes). × 700.

FIG. 86. Section through the pronuclei in process of fusion to form the segmentation nucleus. Nucleoli have disappeared. × 2100.

PLATE 7.

Hipponoë esculenta.

FIG. 87. Two oöcytes near the culmination of the growth-period, each with several chromatin nucleoli and but slightly chromatic nuclear reticulum. × 440.

FIG. 88. Primary oöcyte at slightly later stage; nuclear reticulum more highly chromatic. × 440.

FIGS. 89, 90. Primary oöcytes at still later stages of development, showing but a single nucleolus and stout, compact, and very chromatic nuclear network. × 440.

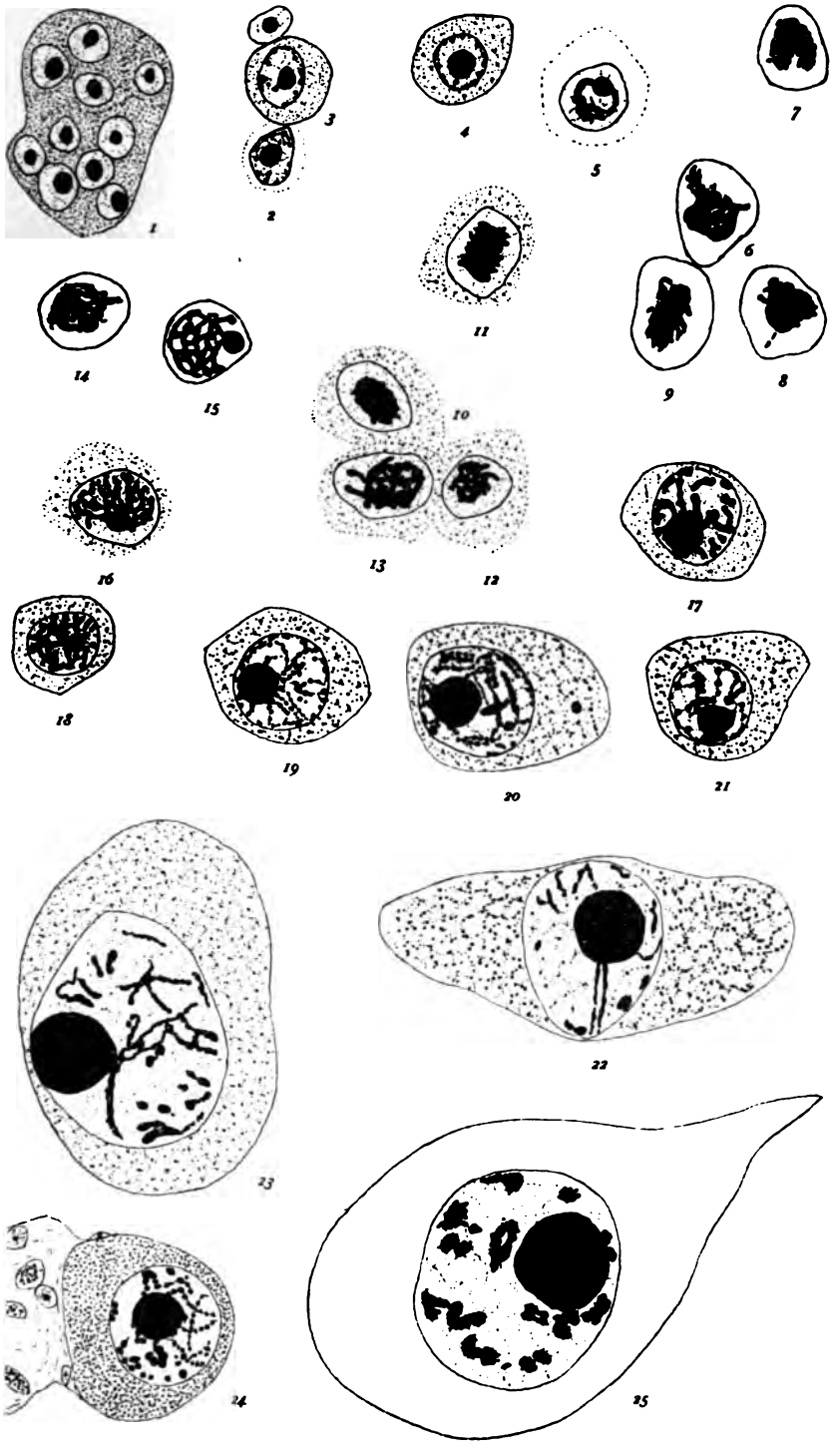
FIG. 91. Oöcyte at beginning of maturation. Nuclear wall is disappearing. The nuclear reticulum in form of compact spireme. First polar spindle in process of origin. Nucleolus has vanished. × 440.

FIG. 92. Early prophase of first maturation division. Chromosomes still in form of loose, stout spireme and surrounded by residual substance of nucleus. × 440.

FIG. 93. First polar spindle at early metaphase. × 2100.

FIG. 94. Second polar spindle at anaphase. × 2100.

FIG. 05. Mature ovum with female pronucleus. × 440.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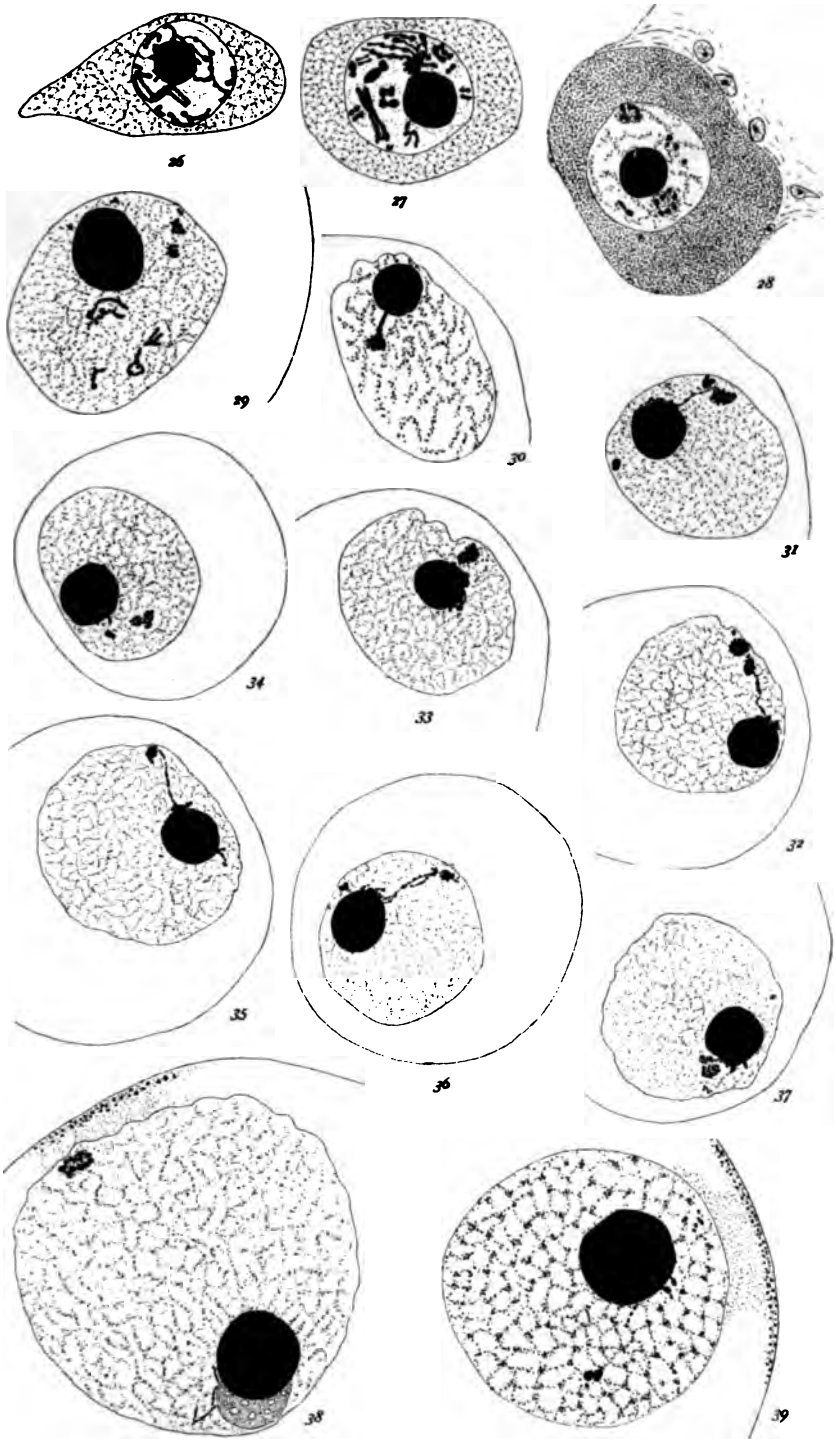
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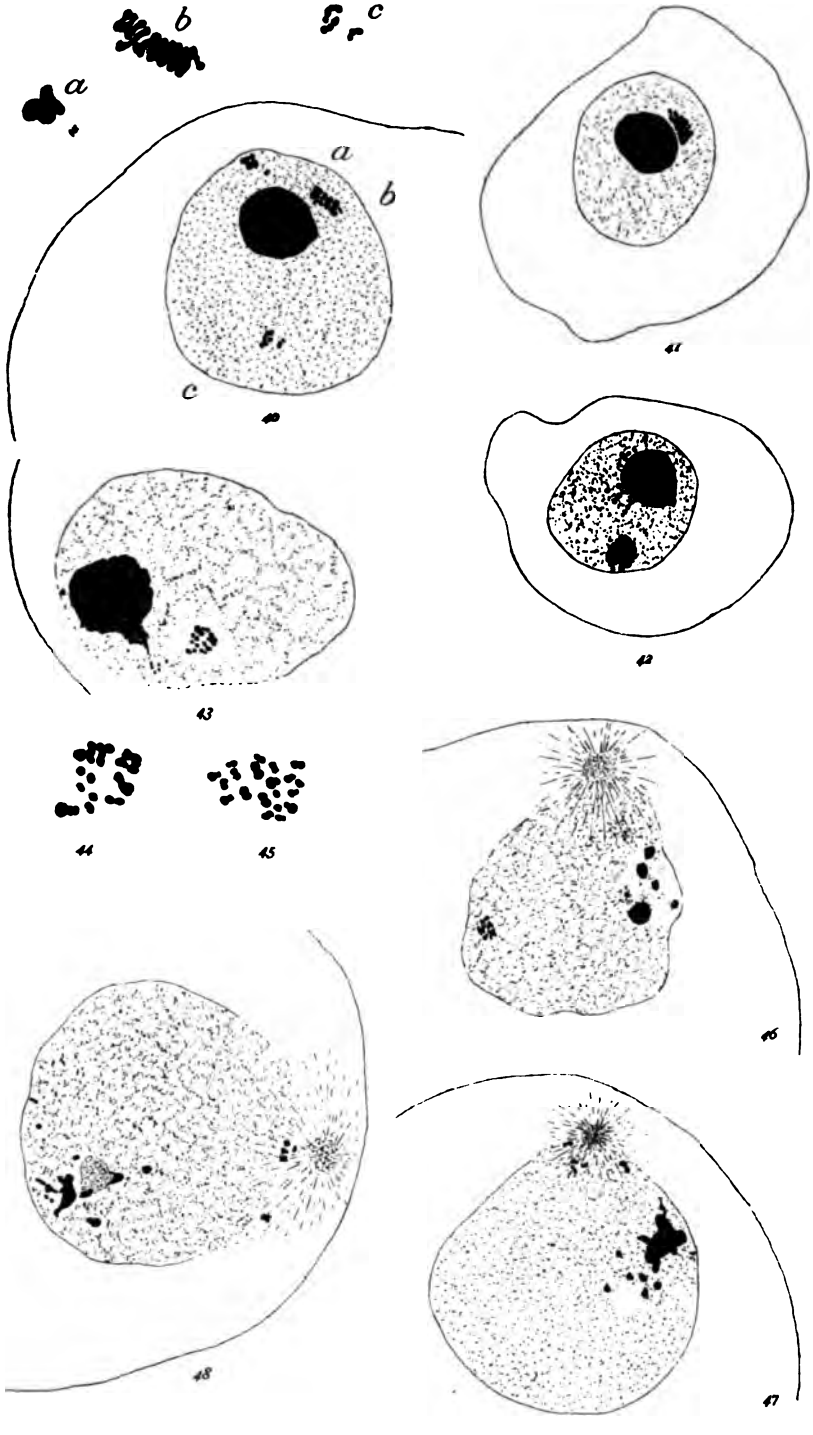
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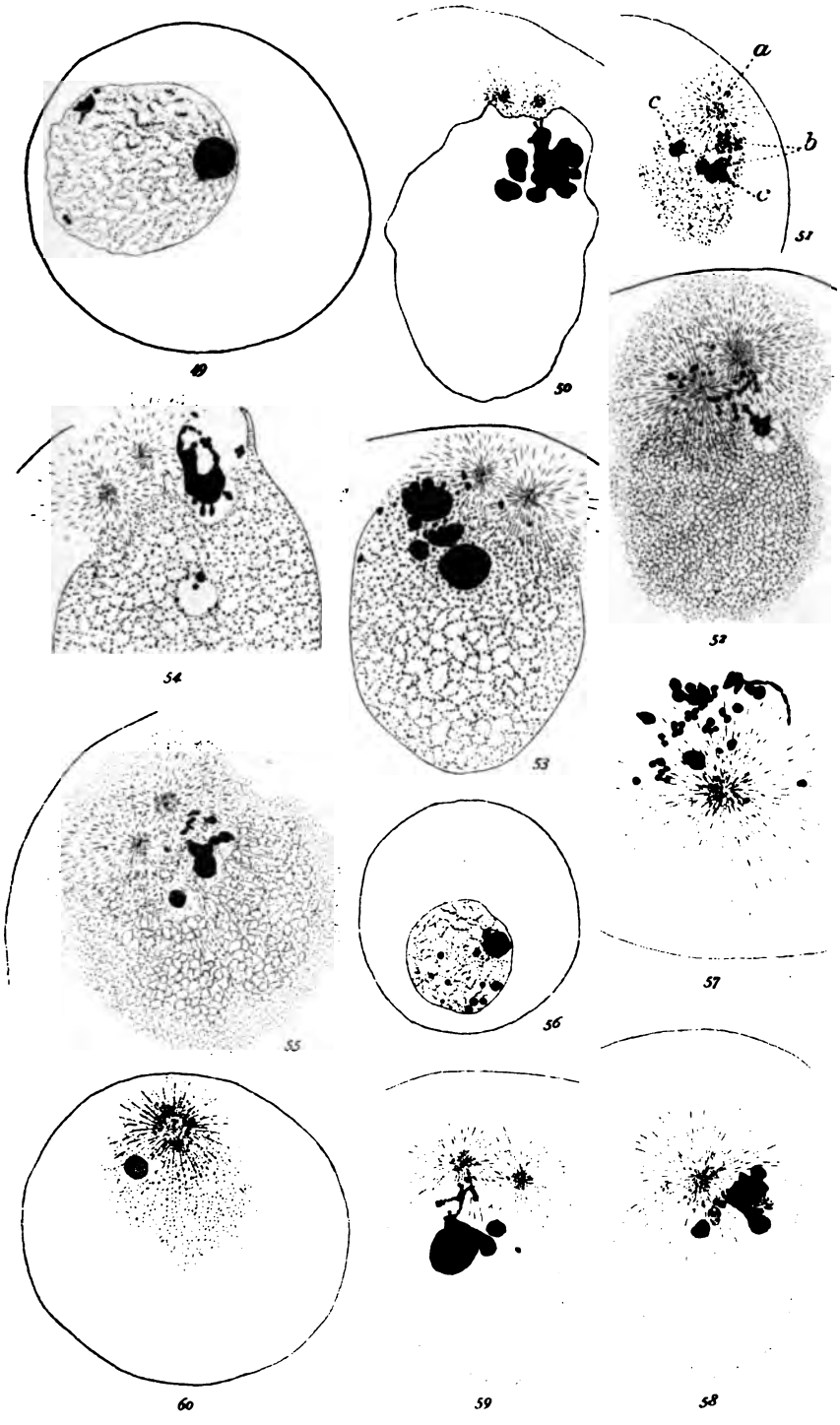
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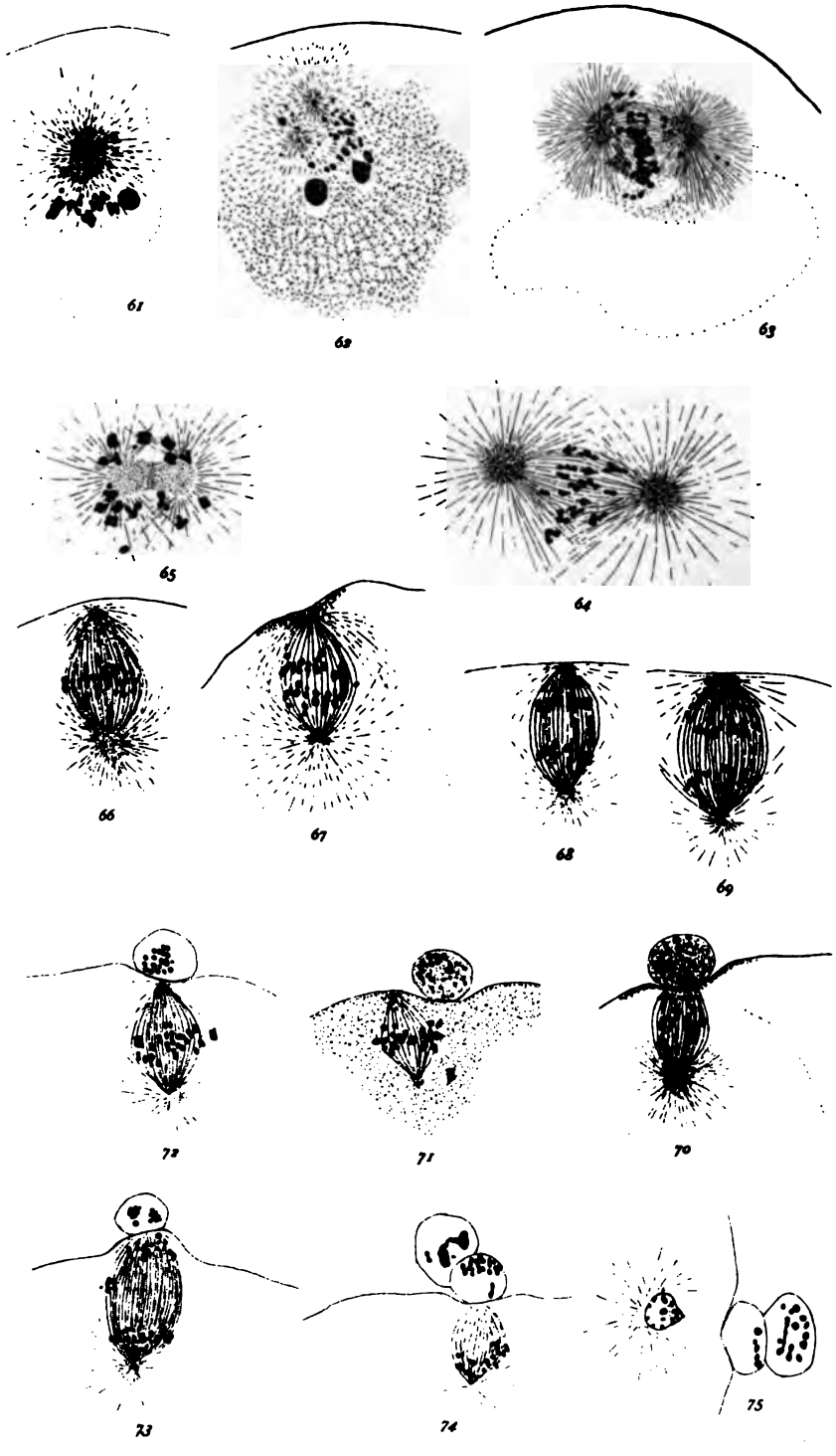
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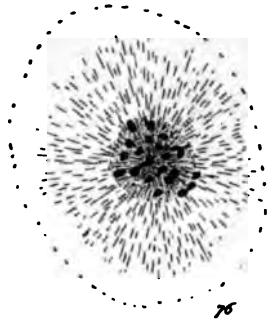

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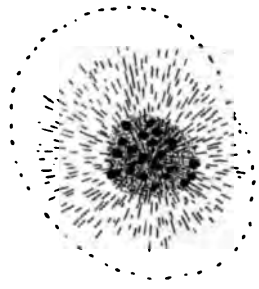

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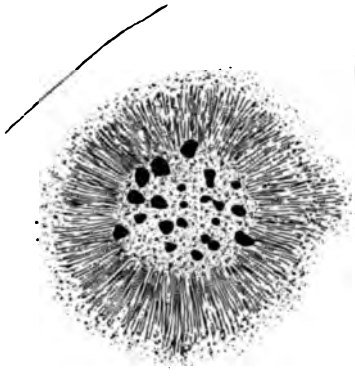

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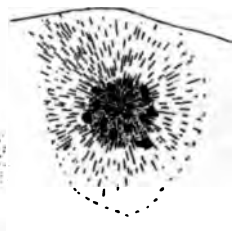

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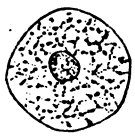

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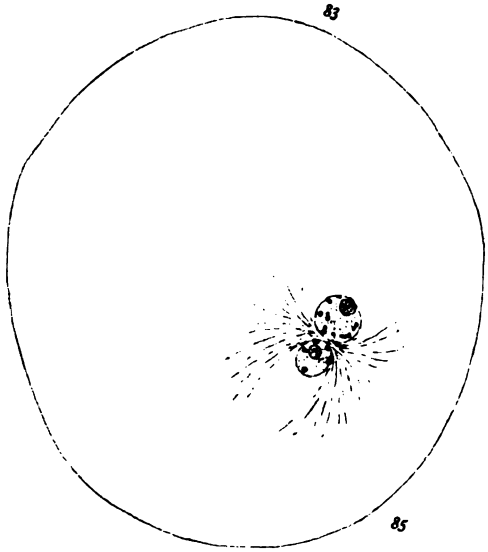

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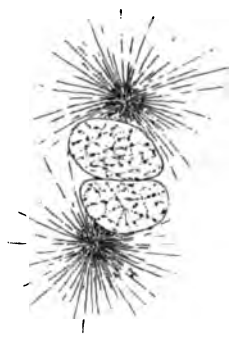

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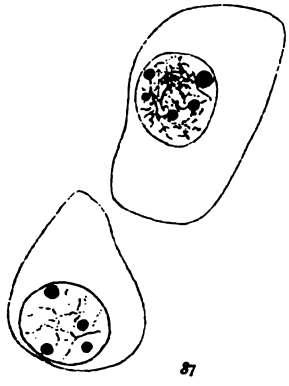
H. E. JORDAN—HIPPONOË ESCULENTA



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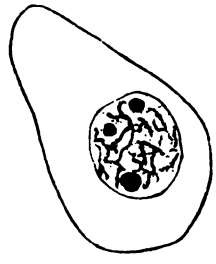

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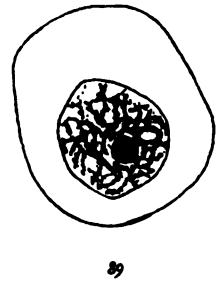

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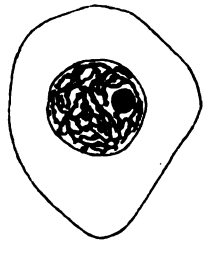

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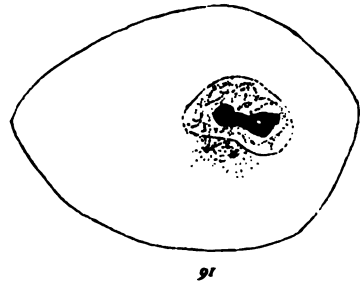

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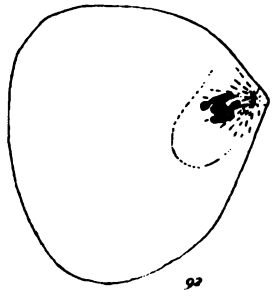

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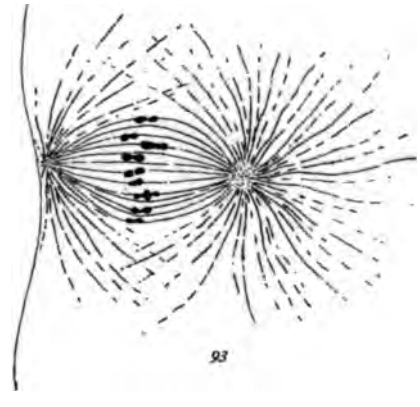

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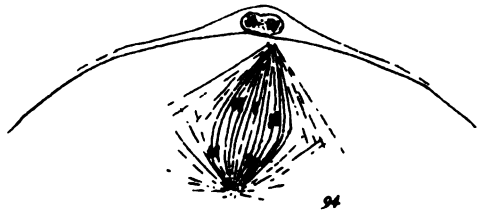

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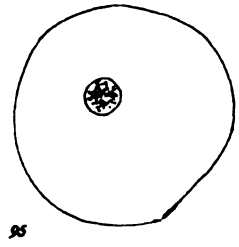


95

IV. THE PELAGIC TUNICATA OF THE GULF STREAM

PART II. SALPA FLORIDANA (APSTEIN)

PART III. THE SUBGENUS CYCLOSALPA

PART IV. ON OIKOPLEURA TORTUGENSIS, N. SP. A NEW APPENDICULARIAN FROM THE TORTUGAS WITH NOTES ON ITS EMBRYOLOGY

Plates 1 to 8 and 3 text figures

WILLIAM KEITH BROOKS.

A sentiment of mournful interest must ever associate itself with the following papers by Professor William Keith Brooks, for they are the last that can fall from his able pen. He died on November 12, 1908, in the sixtieth year of his age.

Science must mourn him as a profound philosopher, the discoverer of many truths in morphology, and a teacher whose pupils are the greatest of American biologists to-day. The practical world will recollect him as the father of the science of oyster culture in America.

Good as these things be, deeper and above them all, there lives in our hearts a love for this kindly man of culture, the modest, hopeful teacher, who was free from all trace of pedantry.

The spirit of his simple faith in research he has passed on to those whose lives were enriched by knowing him, and who now follow where he led in the study of his science.

A. G. M.

THE PELAGIC TUNICATA OF THE GULF STREAM.

PART II—SALPA FLORIDANA (APSTEIN).

By William Keith Brooks.

(Plate 1, figs. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6; plate 2, figs. 7 and 9.)

This rare *Salpa,* which is little known, has been noted, by Traustedt, as *S. dolichosoma-virgula.* (Ergebnisse der Plankton-Expedition der Humboldt-Stiftung: Edited by Victor Hensen. II, A. Die Thaliacea der Plankton-Expedition: Systematische Bearbeitung; von M. P. A. Traustedt, 1892.)

It has been more thoroughly described and figured by Apstein, who shows that it is very different from *S. dolichosoma,* and gives it the name *S. floridana.* (Ergebnisse der Plankton-Expedition der Humboldt-Stiftung: Edited by Victor Hensen. II, B. Die Thaliacea der Plankton-Expedition: Vertheilung der Salpen, von Dr. Carl Apstein, 1894.)

Apstein gives figures of both the solitary and the aggregated form, but neither stage is drawn from an adult, the figures of the solitary form being drawn from an embryo and those of the aggregated form from a detached member of a young colony. His account contains many minor inaccuracies, as it is based upon these immature specimens, which seem to have been badly preserved and ill-suited for study.

Mature specimens of both stages were found, in May, 1906, on the surface in the vicinity of the Marine Biological Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington at Tortugas, Florida; and an opportunity was thus afforded to study and sketch them while alive, and thus to make additions to, and some slight corrections of, the account of the species which Apstein gives.

It is in the shape of the colony of the aggregated form, and in the number and arrangement of its muscles, and those of the solitary form, that my observations are most in conflict with Apstein's account. He says there are ten muscles in the solitary form, while I find no less than sixteen definite and characteristic muscles, without counting the slender ones around the mouth and the cloacal aperture. This discrepancy is due, in part, to the fact that he sometimes regards as one a muscle that is single on one surface of the body, dorsal or ventral as the case may be, when it is represented by two or more on the opposite surface. The hoop-like muscles of *Salpa* are not like blood-vessels or nerves that have their origin in a central

Note.—Professor Brooks's long illness rendered it impossible for him to revise the proof of the following papers, and should any short-comings be discovered in them, such may be attributed to the fact that they have not had the benefit of his personal supervision.

organ, for neither end of the muscle can be regarded as the origin. Apstein's method of enumerating the muscles makes his account difficult to follow with a specimen, and often leads him into inconsistency. Clearness seems to demand that a muscle that is single on one surface and represented by two or more on the other surface should be described as several muscles, and Apstein sometimes follows this rule, while upon other occasions he departs from it.

I have found it very difficult to make comparisons between the muscles of different species without a more minute system of enumeration than the diagnosis of species seems to require, and my chief reason for the method that I here employ is to facilitate the description of homologies among the muscles.

THE SOLITARY SALPA FLORIDANA.

(Plate 1, figs. 1, 2, 3, 4; plate 2, fig. 7.)

In the figures, the muscles that are on the surface of the body that is nearest the observer are designated by Arabic numerals, while those that are seen on the far side through the transparent body are designated by Roman numerals. Plate 1, figure 1, is a dorsal view of the adult, magnified 16.5 diameters. Plate 1, figure 2, is a ventral view of the same specimen. Plate 1, figure 3, shows the digestive organs of the same specimen in ventral view. Plate 1, figure 4, is a ventral view of an embryo at the stage that is described by Apstein, magnified 30 diameters. Plate 2, figure 7, is a side view of a younger embryo magnified 100 diameters.

On each side of the body of the solitary form there is an organ that Apstein calls a glandular lateral organ. It is a luminous organ like those of *S. pinnata*. It makes its appearance in the young embryo (plate 2, figure 7, *lum.*) in the plane of the muscle that is numbered 9 in my figures, and it lengthens at each end as development progresses. In the older embryos (plate 1, figure 4) it occupies the intermuscular spaces 7–8, 8–9, and 9–10, and even reaches beyond 8 and 10, as in plate 1, figures 1 and 2. It is in the body-cavity, and not in the muscles.

The solitary *S. floridana*, from which plate 1, figures 1, 2, and 3 were drawn, is about 10 mm. long, and the average length is about 12 mm., as Apstein says. The living animal is cylindrical, and Apstein is, no doubt, right in attributing the flatness of his specimens to pressure against the bottle in which they had been preserved.

THE MUSCLES OF THE SOLITARY SALPA FLORIDANA.

The homology between the muscles of *S. floridana* and those of the other cyclosalpas is so exact that the equivalent of each muscle can be recognized in the other species without difficulty, and I shall give no detailed account of them in this place, as the reader may refer to the general account of the muscles of the cyclosalpas in Part III of this memoir.

The following characteristics in respect to the muscles are distinctive of *S. floridana:* Muscles 4, 5, and 7 meet near the middle line of the dorsal surface to form a common trunk, which does not cross the middle line nor meet its fellow of the opposite side. Muscles 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 meet on the middle line of the ventral surface to form a common trunk which crosses the middle line and unites with its fellow of the opposite side. Muscle 11 is independent of other muscles, and its halves are separated from each other, both dorsally and ventrally. Muscle 12 crosses the middle line of the ventral surface, but its ends are independent near the middle line of the dorsal surface. Muscle 13 is complete both dorsally and ventrally and free from union with other muscles. It crosses, but does not unite with, muscle 14. Muscle 14 arises on the middle line of the ventral surface, from the middle of muscle 12, in a short longitudinal stem, which quickly divides into a pair of slender muscles, which, running outwards and backwards, bend around on to the dorsal surface and unite with muscle 15. Muscle 15 is a slender muscle which crosses the middle line of the ventral surface and unites, on the dorsal surface, with muscle 14 to form a single dorsal muscle.

The method of muscle-enumeration that I have employed is the one that is best suited for discussing the homologies of the muscles in different species, and I give a table to show the difference between Apstein's enumeration and my own.

Table to contrast Apstein's enumeration of the muscles of the solitary Salpa floridana with author's enumeration.

Brooks.	Apstein.
Muscle 1	1 on dorsal surface of figures 3 and 4; part of 2–3 on ventral surface of figure 3.
Muscle 2	Part of 2 on dorsal surface of figure 4; part of 2–4 on dorsal surface of figure 3.
Muscle 3	2 on dorsal surface of figure 4; 1 on ventral surface of figure 3.
Muscle 4	Part of 2 in figure 4; part of 2–3 in figure 3.
Muscle 5	3 in figure 4; part of 2–4 on dorsal surface of figure 3; part of 2–3 on ventral surface of figure 3.
Muscle 6	Part of 2–3 on ventral surface of figure 3.
Muscle 7	4 in figure 4; 2–4 on dorsal surface of figure 3; 4–5 on ventral surface of figure 3.
Muscle 8	5 in figure 4; 5 on dorsal surface of figure 3; 4–5 on ventral surface of figure 3.
Muscle 9	Muscle 6 in all figures.
Muscle 10	Muscle 7 in all figures.
Muscle 11	Muscle 8 in all figures.
Muscle 12	Muscle 9 in all figures.
Muscle 13	Muscle 10 on dorsal surface in figures 3 and 4.
Muscle 14	Muscle 10 on ventral surface of figure 3.
Muscle 15	Not designated nor represented correctly.
Muscle 16	Not figured nor noted.

In plate 1, figure 4, I give a ventral view of an old embryo 4.5 mm. long, magnified 30 diameters. It is in the same stage of development as the one on which Apstein bases his account of the species. The muscles are essentially like those of the adult, except that muscles 12, 13 and 14, are rela-

tively thicker and more easy to trace, and the specimen shows clearly that muscles 13 and 14 are not united where they cross each other. The younger embryo that is shown, in side view, in plate 2, figure 7, shows the muscle 16 that joins muscle 1 to muscle 5 on the side of the body. This muscle is difficult to see in a dorsal or ventral view. The left-hand one of the adult is shown, at 16, on the left side of figure 1 and the right-hand one is shown on the left side (right side inverted) of figure 2.

Since the muscles of *S. floridana* are homologous with, but much more specialized than, those of *S. pinnata,* it seems natural to conclude that it is a modified descendant of an ancestral form that resembled *S. pinnata,* and this conclusion is strengthened by the comparative study of other organs.

Apstein says that there is no other *Salpa* in which the muscles are joined to each other in as great a degree as they are in *S. floridana,* but a reference to Traustedt's figure of *S. hexagona* will show that all the muscles are thus united in this species. (Traustedt, Spolia Atlantica, Tab. 1, fig. 14.)

THE DIGESTIVE ORGANS AND STOLON OF THE SOLITARY SALPA FLORIDANA.

(Plate 1, fig. 3.)

The opening by which the pharynx communicates with the œsophagus is a large, funnel-shaped aperture, on the right side of the ventral end of the "gill." It diminishes in size very rapidly, and opens into the anterior end of the stomach by an opening, *c,* which is very small as compared with the pharyngeal end. The stomach is joined, on the left, by a large blind pouch, the so-called liver. The aperture by which the stomach communicates with the intestine, *i,* is at the junction of the blind pouch with the stomach. The intestine, *i,* is long, and it runs upwards and forwards to open at the anus, *a,* into the median atrium or cloaca, near its dorsal surface and a little posterior to the ganglion. The intestine lies in that part of the body-cavity that is included in the so-called "gill."

The stolon is twisted into a right-hand spiral, bending to the left from the fixed growing end of the median line and then bending to the right, so that the free end points to the right and is on the right of the middle line. In this respect the stolon of this species is very different from that of *S. pinnata,* and like that of ordinary salpas, such as *S. democratica.*

THE AGGREGATED FORM OF SALPA FLORIDANA.

(Plate 1, figs. 5 and 6; plate 2, fig. 9.)

The colony of the aggregated form of *S. floridana* (plate 2, figure 9) is a circular rosette of four, five, or six or more individuals. In my collection there are some with four, some with five, and one with six, and none with more than six, although six may not be the maximum. The number is very much smaller than it is in other Cyclosalpas, as is shown by comparing figure 9 with the colony of *S. pinnata* shown in plate 2, figure 8. The

colony is about half the size of that of *S. pinnata.* The one from which figure 9 was drawn is 12 mm. in diameter, and our largest specimens, with advanced embryos are about 20 mm. in diameter, which is, probably, near the maximum for *S. floridana.* The colony of *S. pinnata* from which plate 2, figure 8, was drawn is 34 mm. in diameter, and the maximum is about 40 mm.

The members of the colony of *S. floridana* are joined together by slender processes, with lance-shaped ends which meet in the center in a star. The long axes of the animals are in the radii of the colony, while they are at right angles to it in *S. pinnata.* The animals are barrel-shaped, with their mouths central and their cloacal apertures distal—an arrangement that is the reverse of that of *Pyrosoma,* to which the colony presents a superficial resemblance. In the preserved specimen from which figure 9 was drawn, and in all my preserved specimens, the colony resembles a flat wheel, but in the living specimens the dorsal surface is slightly concave and the ventral surface slightly convex, these being features in common with *S. pinnata,* as plate 2, figure 8, shows. In the living colony the long axes of the members of the community are slightly inclined, with the oral end a little nearer the central axis than the aboral end, so that the living colony is not as distinctly wheel-shaped as the preserved specimen from which figure 9 was drawn.

The muscular contractions of the aggregated *S. floridana* are vigorous. and the course of the gill differs according to the phase of muscular contraction of the animal when it was killed. The animals shown in figures 6 and 9 contracted as they were dropped into the killing fluid, and the gill is twisted into a right-hand spiral, which is constant in all the members of this community. The one that is shown in plate 1, figure 5, was killed with its muscles relaxed and its gill is straight, as it is in all the members of the colony from which this specimen was taken. Since neither phase of contraction is any more normal than the other, the gill of the aggregated *S. floridana* must be characterized as straight when the muscles are relaxed, and spiral when they are contracted.

THE DIGESTIVE ORGANS OF THE AGGREGATED SALPA FLORIDANA.

The digestive organs of the aggregated *S. floridana* are very different from those of the solitary form, as Apstein points out. In the solitary form the intestine is long, straight, and it runs, inside the gill, from the ventral stomach to the dorsal anus, which is a little posterior to the ganglion. In the aggregated form (plate 1, figure 5) the intestine runs backwards, and, bending upon itself, runs dorsalwards to the anus, which is on the left side of its gastric end, as Apstein shows it in his figure 2, while he represents it on the right in his figure 1.

Apstein says the endostyle of the aggregated form extends in a straight

line from its anterior end to the region of the digestive organs, but my older and better preserved specimens show a sharp upward bend at the anterior end (plate 1, figure 5).

THE MUSCLES OF THE AGGREGATED FORM OF SALPA FLORIDANA.

(Plate 1, figs. 5 and 6; plate 2, fig. 9.)

Figure 6 shows the muscles in ventral view; figure 9 in dorsal view, and figure 5 in side view. In describing the muscles I have used the method of designating them which is most convenient for comparing them with those of other species, and for studying their homologies. Apstein's account and figures of these muscles is so unsatisfactory that I shall not attempt to compare my own account with his.

In the solitary *S. floridana* all the muscles except 1, 2, 13, 14, and 15 are incomplete dorsally, and do not cross the dorsal middle line, while all except 11 are complete ventrally and cross the middle line. In the aggregated form all the muscles cross the middle line of the dorsal surface, while only 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 cross the middle line of the ventral surface. The muscles at the anterior end of the body, which I have numbered from 1 to 6, can be identified without difficulty with those of the solitary form, which I have designated by the same numbers in figures 1 and 2. The muscles back of 6 are highly specialized, and it is difficult to homologize them with equivalents in the solitary form without comparative study of the other species of *Cyclosalpa*. I find reason, which is given in Part III of this memoir, on the subgenus *Cyclosalpa*, for a very exact homology between the muscles, and the reader may refer to this discussion.

The following are the most conspicuous and important differences between the muscles of the solitary form and those of the aggregated form: In the aggregated form, muscle 3 is prolonged ventrally into that part of the body-cavity which is included in the process that joins the aggregated form to the other members of the community, and it there unites with muscle 7; muscles 4 and 5 unite dorsally to form a common muscle *A*, which crosses the middle line of the dorsal surface and becomes continuous with its fellow of the opposite side. The muscle *A* has no equivalent in the solitary form. Muscle 7 is continued ventrally into the organ of attachment, where it unites with muscle 3; while muscle 7 unites dorsally with a common muscle formed by the union of muscles 8 and 9, and thus gives rise to the muscle *B*, which crosses the middle line of the dorsal surface to become continuous with its fellow of the opposite side; muscles 6 and 8 unite with each other ventrally, and cross the middle line of the ventral surface; muscles 8 and 9 unite dorsally to form a common muscle, which is joined by muscle 7 to form muscle *B*; muscle *C* is a short oblique muscle which joins muscle 10 to the muscle that is formed by the union of muscle 8 with muscle 9.

PART III—THE SUBGENUS CYCLOSALPA.

By William Keith Brooks.

The subgenus *Cyclosalpa,* including *S. pinnata, S. affinis, S. virgula,* and *S. floridana,* is well marked, and distinguished from other salpas by many structural characteristics. The subgenus owes its name to the shape of the colony of the aggregated form, which is a wheel or rosette, as is shown in figures 8 and 9, plate 2.

Three of the four known species of *Cyclosalpa—S. pinnata, S. affinis* and *S. floridana*—have in the solitary form, peculiar luminous organs. No luminous organs are described in *S. virgula,* and I have had no opportunity to study this species. It is not impossible that these organs will be found to be present in this as in the other cyclosalpas. In *S. pinnata* the luminous organs are present in the aggregated form as well as in the solitary form. In the other species they seem to be restricted to the solitary form.

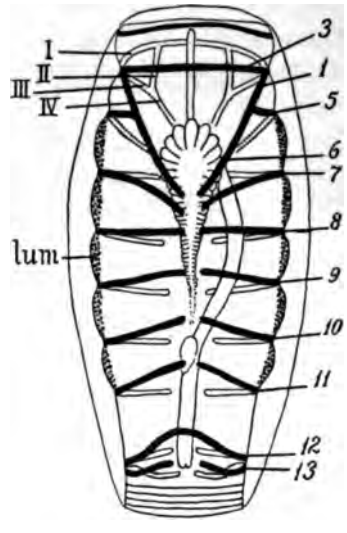


Fig. 1.—The solitary *Salpa pinnata* in ventral view.

One of the most notable of the common characteristics of the cyclosalpas is the intestine of the solitary form. This is long and runs upward and forward from the ventral stomach to open into the cloaca or median atrium on the dorsal side of the body a little posterior to the ganglion. It lies in that part of the body-cavity which is included in the so-called gill.

Plate xxxv of my memoir on "The Genus *Salpa*" is a median longitudinal section of an advanced embryo of *S. pinnata,* showing the gill, *g,* between the pharynx, which is colored red, and the cloaca, which is colored green. The intestine, *p,* is shown in its place in the cavity of the gill, while the anus, *p′,* opens into the cloaca. The relation of the intestine to the gill is also shown in *S. pinnata* in figures 1, 2, and 3 of this memoir. Figure 7 of plate 2 of this memoir is a side view of an advanced embryo of *S. floridana,* showing that the relation of the intestine to the gill is the same as it is in the other cyclosalpas.

There is much confusion, among writers on the embryology of *Salpa,* as to the nature and homologies of the so-called "gill," which is in no way comparable to the gill-clefts of *Doliolum* and *Pyrosoma* and other Tunicata. If *Salpa* has gill-slits, it has only one on each side, and this is enormous, putting the pharynx into free communication with the cloaca or atrium. The so-called "gill" is homologous with the dorsal lamella of other tunicates. It is a rod-like organ, extending obliquely upward and forward from the middle line of the ventral surface in the region of the œsophagus to the middle line of the dorsal surface near and a little posterior to the ganglion, thus separating the pharynx from the atrium on the middle line, while the lateral portions of the pharynx are in free communication with the lateral regions of the atrium. There is, in *Salpa,* no recognizable boundary between the lateral atria and the median atrium, and it has seemed best, for this reason, to most writers on *Salpa* to call the whole atrial system the cloaca. The "gill" is nearly circular in cross-section; its anterior or pharyngeal surface consists of the ciliated pharyngeal epithelium of the dorsal lamella, while its side walls and posterior or cloacal surface consist of the ectodermal epithelium of the cloaca. The "gill" is hollow, lined

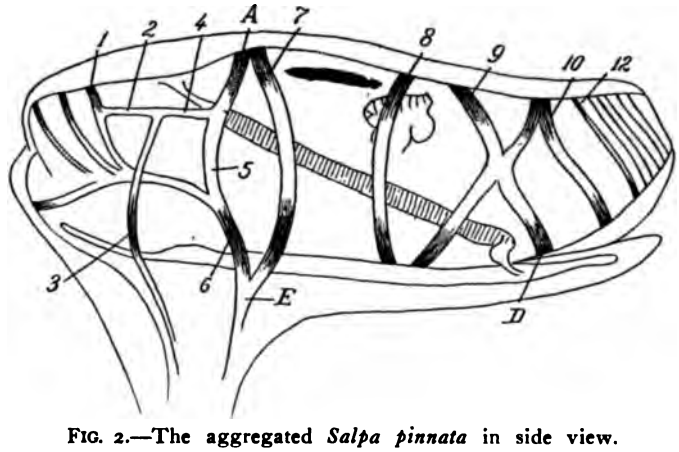


FIG. 2.—The aggregated *Salpa pinnata* in side view.

with mesoderm, and its chamber is part of the body-cavity. It is in this chamber that the intestine of the solitary *Cyclosalpa* lies.

While the solitary cyclosalpas agree in this respect, the aggregated ones differ greatly in the form and position of the intestine. In the aggregated *S. pinnata* the intestine is long, as it is in the solitary form, and the anus is far forward, but the intestine is not in the gill, and it lies on the middle line of the ventral surface, in the body-cavity under the endostyle, as is shown in text-figure 1.

In all the other aggregated cyclosalpas the intestine is very different from that of the solitary ones, and forms a loop with the gastric end and the anal

end close together, and the anus on the left of the stomach. The loop is loose, and the intestine U-shaped in *S. affinis* (text-figure 3) and in *S. virgula* (Apstein, Die Thaliacea der Plankton-Expedition, fig. 1); while it is most compact in *S. floridana* (plate 1, figures 1, 2, and 3). In this latter species it resembles the compact nucleus of the ordinary salpas. The comparative anatomy of the intestine is therefore consistent with the view that S. *pinnata* is the most primitive and *S. floridana* the most specialized among the cyclosalpas.

The Stolon.—In *S. pinnata* and *S. affinis* the stolon is straight, and on the middle line of the ventral surface, under the endostyle, with its free end anterior. I know of no satisfactory account of it in *S. virgula*. In *S. floridana* (plate 1, figures 1, 2, and 3) the stolon is twisted into a right-hand spiral, as it is in most of the ordinary salpas, such as *S. democratica*. In *S. floridana* it first bends to the left, from the growing end, and then, bending upon itself, turns to the right, so that the free and oldest end is on the right of the middle line, and also on the right of the growing end. The position of the stolon in the various species of *Cyclosalpa* is consistent with the view that *S. pinnata* is most primitive and *S. floridana* most specialized.

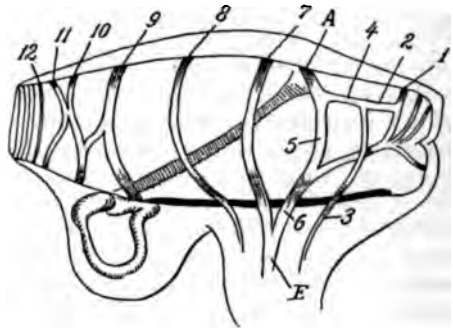


FIG. 3.—Aggregated *Salpa affinis* in side view.

Most, if not all, the species of *Cyclosalpa* have luminous organs, either in the solitary form alone, or in both the solitary and the aggregated form. The light that is emitted by these organs in *S. pinnata* is so intense that it glows brilliantly under the noonday sun of the Tropics. The organs are similar in structure, but not in position, to those of *Pyrosoma*. In *Cyclosalpa* they are in pairs on the sides of the body, a little nearer to the dorsal than to the ventral surface. In the solitary *S. pinnata* they extend over the five intermuscular spaces 5–7, 7–8, 8–9, 9–10, and 10–11. In the aggregated *S. pinnata* they lie in the intermuscular space 7–8. In the solitary *S. floridana* they occupy the intermuscular spaces 7–8, 8–9, and 9–10, and extend a little beyond 7 and 10.

THE HOMOLOGY BETWEEN THE MUSCLES OF THE VARIOUS SPECIES OF CYCLOSALPA.

The text-books still continue to give currency to the opinion that the muscles of *Salpa* are always incomplete, while those of *Doliolum* are always complete rings, and that this is an important and absolute distinction be-

tween *Doliolum* and *Salpa,* showing that the two are not closely related. In relation to this opinion, I give two quotations from my memoir on "The Genus Salpa" (Baltimore, 1893: the Johns Hopkins Press). My purpose in calling attention to the subject in 1893 was to show that there is no basis for the opinion that the salpas and the doliolums are so different in the character of their muscles that they can not be included in a single group nor have had a common origin. Since the text-books still convey the impression that the difference is fundamental and of great importance, it has seemed best to call renewed attention to the subject.

(Page 9.) This error has been most persistent, and it has been made the basis of the fundamental classification of the whole *Salpa*-family, for which Claus has proposed the name Desmomyaria, and Herdman the name Hemimyaria, as distinguished from the Doliolidæ, for which Gegenbaur has proposed the family name Cyclomyaria. Even if this distinction between *Salpa* and *Doliolum* were absolute, the selection of a characteristic so inconstant as the form of the locomotor muscles as a basis for fundamental classification would be most unwise, and it is quite untenable if it is not absolute. As a matter of fact, some of the muscle-bands of *Doliolum* are incomplete, and in at least one species of *Salpa* some are complete. In the first generation or "amme" of *Doliolum* the seventh body-muscle is incomplete dorsally, and in the animal that arises from a median bud—the Pflegetheir—it is incomplete ventrally, while the Ernahrungstheire, or products of the lateral buds, depart very widely from the cyclomyarian type. So far as I am aware, Traustedt is the only modern writer on *Salpa* who has used his eyes and described the muscle-bands as complete circles, as they really are. In his description of this species (Spolia Atlantica. Bidrag til Kundsscab von Salperne. Mem. Acad. Royal, Copenhagen, 6, 2, II, 8, Ger. by M. P. A. Traustedt) and also in his description of the variety *flagellifera,* p. 369, he states the facts correctly; but while his draughtsman, Cordts, has figured *S. democratica* correctly, plate II, figures 25 and 26, he has followed tradition in his figure of *Salpa flagellifera,* plate I, figure 12, rather than nature and Traustedt, so hard it is to combat established error.

(Page 128.) I have already shown, p. 9, that the contrast in the muscle-bands upon which the groups Cyclomyaria and Hemimyaria are based has no existence. In all the doliolums some of the muscle-bands are imperfect rings; in most species of *Salpa* the oral and atrial muscles are perfect rings, and, in the most common and best-known species of *Salpa,* the solitary *S. democratica,* most of the body-muscles are as perfectly closed, dorsally and ventrally, as the rings of *Doliolum. Anchinia,* at least, is only by courtesy a Cyclomyarian, for it has no circular muscles except the oral and atrial sphincters, as the figure of the sexual animal given by Kowalevsky and Barrios clearly shows. (Journ. Anat. Phys., XIX, 1883.) The groups Cyclomyaria and Desmomyaria are then purely artificial and without scientific value.

In the extracts that I have quoted from my memoir of 1893 I had no thought of denying the well-known fact that the various species of *Salpa* form a natural group and the doliolums and their allies another. The context of the two passages that I have quoted shows that my purpose was to show the error of the opinion that these two groups are widely separated and belong in different phyla in the Tunicata, an opinion that is formulated by Uljanin, in his memoir on *Doliolum,* in the statement that he regards *Salpa* as standing alone among the tunicates, and that its resemblance to

Doliolum is superficial and due to secondary adaptation, an opinion which seems to be shared by most of the writers of text-books.

THE MUSCLES OF THE SOLITARY CYCLOSALPA.

The homology between the muscles of the various species of *Cyclosalpa* becomes very conspicuous as soon as careful and accurate drawings are compared, for it is very exact and complete, and the equivalent of each muscle in any one species can be identified without difficulty in all the others. For this purpose more careful drawings of the muscles and a more minute system of designating them than are found in most of the descriptive literature are necessary.

I give, in text-figure 1, a ventral view of the adult solitary *S. pinnata,* and, in plate x, figure 13, a side view of the embryo of the same, with the system of lettering that is used for *S. floridana* in plate 1, figures 1 and 2. The muscles 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 are incomplete, both dorsally and ventrally, and they are independent and not united into groups, as they are in *S. floridana,* but, in other respects, the description of the muscles of *S. floridana* on pp. 76–78 applies to *S. pinnata,* as it does also to *S. affinis,* and, probably, to *S. virgula,* although I have not had an opportunity to study this species, and know of no good figure of the solitary form.

The muscles of *S. floridana* are shown in dorsal view in plate 1, figure 1, in ventral view in figure 2, and side view in figure 7. In all of the figures the muscles that are on the near side are designated by Arabic numerals, and those on the far side, that are seen through the transparent body, are designated by Roman numerals.

Muscle 1 crosses the middle line of the dorsal surface of the body, just posterior to the slender oral muscles, and, bending around on to the ventral surface, runs backwards, and, uniting with muscle 5, forms muscle 6.

Muscle 2 is a dorsal longitudinal muscle, which connects muscle 1 with muscle 4.

Muscle 3 crosses the middle line of the ventral surface posterior to the anterior end of the endostyle and the ciliated band, and, bending around on to the dorsal surface, unites with muscle 2 to form muscle 4.

Muscle 4 is a dorsal longitudinal muscle that is formed by the union of muscle 2 and muscle 3.

Muscle 5, arising near the middle line of the dorsal surface, runs outwards and forwards, and, bending on to the ventral surface, and running inwards and backwards, unites with muscle 1 to form muscle 6.

Muscle 6 is a ventral muscle that is formed by the union of muscle 1 with muscle 5.

Muscle 7 is nearly transverse dorsally, while its ventral half runs inwards and backwards.

Muscle 8 is transverse, both dorsally and ventrally.

Muscle 9 is nearly transverse dorsally, whereas its ventral half runs inwards and forwards.

Muscle 10 is like muscle 9, except that its ventral half is still more inclined forwards.

Muscle 11 is like muscle 9 and muscle 10, except that its ventral half is still more inclined forwards.

Muscle 12 crosses the middle line of the ventral surface, while its dorsal portions do not meet on the middle line.

Muscles 11, 13, 14, and 15: I am not able to trace an exact homology between the muscles posterior to muscle 12 in the various species of *Cyclosalpa,* although this failure may be due to a lack of detail in this region in the figures.

Muscle 16, which occurs also in *S. pinnata,* is shown in *S. floridana* in figure 7, is a longitudinal muscle that connects muscle 1 with muscle 5. It is not visible in a symmetrical dorsal or ventral view, as it is on the side of the body, midway between the dorsal and the ventral surface. It is shown in the adult *S. floridana* on the left side of figure 1, which is not a perfectly dorsal view.

The four known species of *Cyclosalpa* fall into two sets as regards the muscles of the solitary form. In *Salpa pinnata* and *S. affinis* the muscles are not united into groups or bundles, while they are so united in *S. virgula,* and *S. floridana.*

In *S. floridana* (plate 1, figure 1) muscles 4, 5, and 7 of each side are united near the middle line of the dorsal surface into a single muscle, which does not cross the middle line nor unite with its fellow of the opposite side. In the ventral surface of the same species (figure 2) muscles 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 unite to form a common trunk, which crosses the middle line of the ventral surface to become continuous with its fellow of the opposite side.

Since the muscles of the solitary cyclosalpas are homologous, and those of *S. pinnata* and *S. affinis* simple, or not united into groups, while those of *S. floridana* and *S. virgula* are more specialized, it seems natural to regard *S. pinnata* and *S. affinis* as more primitive. The study of the digestive organs corroborates this view and seems to indicate that all the cyclosalpas are derived from a *pinnata*-like ancestral form.

In the solitary *S. pinnata* muscles 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 are incomplete both dorsally and ventrally, and they are not joined into bundles. In *S. affinis* muscles 8, 9, 10, and 11 are complete dorsally, but not united into bundles. In *S. floridana* they are incomplete dorsally, but 4, 5, and 7 are united into a bundle on the dorsal surface, while muscles 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 are complete ventrally and united into a bundle.

THE MUSCLES OF THE AGGREGATED CYCLOSALPA.

(Plate 1, figs. 5 and 6; plate 2, figs. 8 and 9.)

In the aggregated forms of the various species of *Cyclosalpa,* the muscles at the anterior end of the body, which I have numbered from 1 to 8, are so much alike that they can be identified without difficulty, both with each other and with the muscles of the solitary *Cyclosalpa.* There is much greater specialization in the muscles in the posterior region of the body, which I have numbered from 7 to 12. Here it is difficult to trace exact homologies among the aggregated forms of the various species, or between the aggregated form and the solitary form, although it is probable that the muscles of all the cyclosalpas, solitary and aggregated, are homologous.

In all the aggregated forms there is a muscle that is very characteristic. It is marked *C* in figure 5, *S. floridana,* and is shown unlettered in text-figure 2, *S. pinnata,* and text-figure 3, *S. affinis.* It extends obliquely upwards and backwards from one of the encircling muscles to the next. As it appears to be equivalent in all the species, I assume that the muscles that it joins are also equivalent, and I have designated them by the same numbers, 9 and 10. In all the aggregated salpas the stalks that bind the members into a community contain prolongations of the body-cavity into which two or more of the muscles are prolonged, as is shown in text-figures 2 and 3, and these appear to be homologous in the different species.

The muscles of the aggregated *S. floridana* are shown in plate 1, figures 5 and 6, and plate 2, figure 9; those of the aggregated *S. pinnata* in plate 2, figure 8, and in text-figure 2; those of *S. affinis* in text-figure 3.

Muscle 1 crosses the middle line of the dorsal surface, just posterior to the slender oral muscles, and, bending around on to the ventral surface, runs backwards, and, uniting with muscle 5, forms muscle 6, resembling the corresponding muscle of the solitary form in all respects.

Muscle 2 is a longitudinal muscle which connects muscle 1 with muscle 4, as in the solitary form.

Muscle 3 is prolonged ventrally into the attaching process, and, running dorsally, posterior to the anterior end of the endostyle, unites with muscle 2 to form muscle 4, as in the solitary form.

Muscle 4 is a dorsal longitudinal muscle that is formed by the union of muscle 2 and muscle 3, as in the solitary form, and it unites with muscle 5, as in the solitary *S. floridana,* and gives rise to a muscle, *A,* which crosses the middle line to unite with its fellow.

Muscle 5 unites with muscle 1 to form muscle 6, as in the solitary form, but it unites dorsally with muscle 4 to form muscle *A.*

Muscle 6 is formed by the union of muscle 1 with muscle 5, as in the solitary form. In *S. affinis* and *S. pinnata* it unites ventrally with muscle 7 and prolonged into the attaching process, where it unites with muscle 7 to form muscle *E.* In *S. floridana* it crosses, but does not unite with,

muscle 7, while it does unite with muscle 8 and with its fellow of the opposite side, on the ventral middle line.

Muscle 7 is in the organ of attachment in *S. pinnata, S. affinis,* and *S. floridana,* and probably in *S. virgula.* In *S. pinnata* and *S. affinis* it is united ventrally to muscle 6, but it is not so united in *S. floridana.* Dorsally it crosses the middle line close to, but not united with, muscle *A* in *S. pinnata* and *S. affinis,* while in *S. floridana* it unites dorsally with muscle 9 to form the median dorsal muscle *B.* It is no doubt homologous in all the aggregated cyclosalpas, and also homologous with muscle 7 of the solitary cyclosalpas.

Muscle 8 is a complete and independent ring in *S. pinnata;* prolonged ventrally into the organ of attachment in *S. affinis;* united with muscle 6 on the ventral middle and with muscle 9 laterally in *S. floridana,* it is homologous with muscle 8 of the solitary forms.

I am not able to identify the muscles posterior to 8 in the various aggregated forms with each other or with those of the solitary forms with any confidence, as the various species are much specialized in this region.

In *S. pinnata* the muscle that I have marked 9 crosses the middle line of the dorsal surface close to, but not united with, muscle 8. In *S. affinis* it crosses the dorsal middle line independently of and at a distance from muscle 8. In *S. floridana* it crosses the middle line of the ventral surface, and unites dorsally with muscle 8, and then with muscle 7 to form muscle *B,* which crosses the dorsal middle line close to but independently of muscle *A.*

Muscle 10 is a circular muscle that seems to be homologous in *S. pinnata, S. affinis,* and *S. floridana,* and it is joined to muscle 9 by the oblique muscle *C.*

The results of the study of the muscles of the various species of *Cyclosalpa* in the solitary and the aggregated form may be summarized as follows: The muscles are homologous, and in most cases the homology can be traced without difficulty, while it is more obscure in other cases; it is most easy to trace in anterior ends of the bodies, while the specialization is greater, and the homology more obscure, in the posterior region of the body. There is a very complete series which connects the simplest and most primitive form—the solitary *S. pinnata*—with the most specialized form—the aggregated *S. floridana.*

PART IV — ON OIKOPLEURA TORTUGENSIS, A NEW APPENDICULARIAN FROM THE TORTUGAS, FLORIDA, WITH NOTES ON ITS EMBRYOLOGY.

By William Keith Brooks and Carl Kellner.

(Plates 3–8.)

INTRODUCTORY.

A large appendicularian (plate 3, fig. 4) in its house is found in abundance in the vicinity of the Marine Biological Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington at Tortugas, Florida. It is, no doubt, widely distributed along the coast of Florida, as it has been found by Dr. Mayer and Professor Brooks at Miami, and by Mr. Kellner in the Tortugas. The specimens are from 5 to 8 mm. long, and occur in great swarms at the depth of from 5 to 8 fathoms. They belong to the genus *Oikopleura* and to a species that seems to be new, although its differences from *O. longicauda* and *O. intermedia* of Lohmann are slight. The house (plate 3, figs. 4 and 5) is large, about 20 mm. in diameter, and nearly spherical. In its internal structure it resembles the houses that have been described in other species of the genus.

Most of the houses contain small appendicularias of various sizes, but all are well advanced and in the appendicularia-stage. It is possible that these are the young of the animal in whose house they are found, but it is also possible that they have been drawn into the house by the current of water and that they are not, of necessity, the young of the species which forms the house.

On the tails of some of the specimens (plate 7, fig. 13) are the eggs and early stages in the development of an appendicularian which may be *Oikopleura,* although it is possible that they belong to some other species. The eggs (plate 7, fig. 16) are inclosed in thick capsules of follicle-cells. Some are loosely attached to the tails, while others (plate 7, fig. 19) have, at one end, a process of modified follicle-cells that penetrates the tail like a root and firmly attaches the egg. Two embryos, at two successive stages of early development (plate 7, figs. 20 and 15) were found. They are deeply rooted in the tail by a process that penetrates the blood-sinus of the adult, and the embryos are parasites. On the ventral surface of the older embryo (plate 7, fig. 14) the two spiracles, opening to the exterior at one end and into the respiratory pouches of the pharynx at the other, prove that the embryos are appendicularians, although we have not been

able to make out much of their development from two imperfectly preserved specimens of such minute size. The so-called gland-cells that have been figured and described by Lohmann on the tail of *Oikopleura* are no doubt eggs or embryos.

All of the houses that we examined contained small elongated gregarina-like parasites (plate 3, fig. 6). On the tails of some of the specimens are rhizopods of the genus *Gromia* rooted in the tails by a network of pseudopodia, and with the body covered by a thin transparent shell (plate 4, fig. 12). This rhizopod is described on page 93.

Oikopleura tortugensis sp. nov. (Kellner).

(Plates 3 and 4, figs. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11.)

DIAGNOSIS OF THE SPECIES.

Both slightly elongated. Dorsal outline convex in profile view (fig. 1). Ventral surface between anus, *a*, and mouth, *f*, strongly convex. Mouth nearly dorsal. Whole surface of body, dorsal or anterior to a line that joins the anus to the dorsal end of the reproductive organ, covered with large cells (plates 3 and 4, figs. 1, 2 and 3). In region of oikoplast there are four membranoplasts, *c*, *c*, one on each side of the middle line of the dorsal surface, and one on each side of the body dorsal to the rectum and anterior to the anterior end of stomach.

Endostyle nearly vertical, anterior end near mouth, posterior end much anterior to the spiracles.

Digestive organs (plates 5 and 6, figs. 7, 8, 9, 10).—Stomach large; with two lobes. The œsophagus opens into left lobe at some distance from its posterior end, which terminates in a dorsal conical protuberance. Right lobe is continued into the intestine, which becomes much enlarged near the anus.

Reproductive organs (plate 5, figs. 7, 8) convex posteriorly, anteriorly consisting of two concave lateral portions that partially cover the posterior ends of the lobes of the stomach, and a thicker central portion that lies between these lobes.

Length of body of our largest specimen, 2.5 mm.

Tail (plate 4, fig. 11) broad, with well-developed muscles; end of tail broad, rounded, with no terminal fold.

House (plate 4, figs. 4 and 5) spherical, delicate, transparent, with two openings, *p*, *p*, through which water enters, and an unpaired opening, *q*, through which it is discharged and through which the animal leaves it when it is abandoned.

Distribution.—Abundant near the Dry Tortugas and in Gulf Stream near Cape Florida.

Remarks.—The differences between this species and *O. longicauda* and

O. intermedia, as described by Lohmann (Appendicularien der Plankton-Expedition, von Dr. H. Lohmann. Ergebnisse der Plankton-Expedition der Humboldt-Stiftung. Bd. II. C. c. Edited by Victor Hensen, 1894) are slight. The tail is like that of *O. longicauda,* lacking the fin-like lobe that is described and figured in *O. intermedia* by Lohmann. In other respects it is like *O. intermedia* resembling it, and differing from *O. longicauda,* in the following respects: The digestive organs are less compact than in *O. longicauda* and like those of *O. intermedia.* The œsophagus joins the left lobe of the stomach much anterior to the curved process that forms the posterior end of the left lobe, as in *O. intermedia* (see plate 5, figs. 7 and 8), and not close to it, as in *O. longicauda.* The endostyle is near the mouth and nearly vertical, as in *O. intermedia,* and it is separated from the region of the gills by a wide interval, while it is more nearly horizontal and farther back in *O. longicauda.* The thin membranous veil (Schleier) that Lohmann describes and figures in *O. longicauda,* overhanging the dorsal surface of the posterior end of the body, to which it is attached near the reproductive organ, is not present in any of our specimens, nor does Lohmann mention it in *O. intermedia.*

NOTES ON EMBRYOLOGY.

In plate 7, figure 13, part of the tail of *Oikopleura tortugensis* is shown magnified 43 diameters. Attached to it are three eggs, *r, r, r,* of which one is shown, more magnified in figure 16, and an embryo, *s,* which is shown, more enlarged, in figures 19 and 20. The eggs are attached to the tail by a process that penetrates into the tissues. In figure 16 one of the eggs is shown, magnified 200 diameters. The opaque egg, *r,* is inclosed in a follicle, *z,* of elongated cells with flat outer ends. At the bottom of the figure the fastening process or root, *x,* is shown. It is formed of follicle-cells, and shows indications of an axial cavity. No test-cells can be made out between the yolk and the follicle, the minute, badly preserved specimens not being favorable for observation. All of the specimens were fixed with picro-acetic fixative and carefully preserved with changes of alcohol; but as they were preserved for the identification of the species, with no thought of eggs or embryos, they were not isolated, but were handled wholesale as they were collected. While we found several eggs, we found only two embryos in our collection. While they are much better preserved than the eggs, they are too few to afford much information about the details of the life-history. One of them, shown at *s* in figure 13, is shown, magnified 300 diameters, in plates 7 and 8, figures 17, 18, 19, 20. An older one is shown in ventral view in plate 7, figure 14, in dorsal view in figure 15, and in sections in plate 8, figures 21, 22, 23, 24 and 25. The structure of the older embryo has features of resemblance to an adult appendicularian, and as it is, therefore, more intelligible than the younger one, it will be described first.

It is shown in dorsal view, magnified 300 diameters in plate 7, figure 15, and in ventral view in figure 14. It is deeply rooted in the tail of the adult by a process from the anterior, or oral, end of its body. The process is hollow, as is shown in the sections drawn in figures 24 and 25 of plate 8, but there is no trace of an opening at its tip, and it no doubt absorbs its food in a liquid state. As the sections show, its wall consists of a single layer of large cells, with here and there a cell or a group of cells on its outer surface. These outer cells seem to be blood corpuscles of the adult. In the body-cavity of the embryo there is a row of four big cells in the axis that passes through the root. One of them is shown in section in plate 8, figure 23. They are no doubt concerned with the nutrition of the embryo, making the food that is taken up by the root available.

On the middle line of the dorsal surface, near the attached end of the body, there is an opening, shown at *f* in plate 8, figure 23, which we regard as the mouth. It communicates with a thin-walled, V-shaped chamber, *ad*, which we regard as the oral or stomodæal chamber of the pharynx. At each end it opens into one of the large, thick-walled, ciliated branchial pouches of the pharynx, which are shown at *t, t*, in plate 7, figures 14 and 15, in the entire embryo, and in section at *t, t*, in plate 8, figures 21, 22, and 23. In side view of the adult, figure 1, the gill is shown, at *l*, as a thin-walled tube, opening at its inner end into the pharynx through the internal spiracle, which is shown to be ciliated in plate 4, figure 3, at *k* and *l;* and opening to the exterior through the external spiracle, which is on the ventral surface near the middle line. In all these respects the embryo that is shown in plate 7, figures 14 and 15, is so much like the adult as to show, beyond question, that it is the embryo of an appendicularian. The ciliated pharyngeal pouches are shown in figure 15 in dorsal view and in figure 14 in ventral view, at *t, t*. The gills are shown, *u, u*, in ventral view, communicating with the pharyngeal pouches at the posterior ends, which are above in the figure and opening to the exterior, near the middle line, through openings that are much more elongated than they are in the adult.

In the sections in plate 8, figure 23 is most anterior, and it cuts the mouth, *f*, and the oral region of the pharynx, *ad*, showing its communication with the pharyngeal pouches, *t, t*, which are shown in figure 22, communicating, at *y*, with the gills, *u, u*, through the internal or pharyngeal spiracles; while figure 21 shows the external spiracles at *ac*.

The large, thick-walled chamber shown at *v* in plate 8, figures 22 and 23, may be the stomach, bilobed at its tip. In plate 8, figures 17 and 18, which are optical sections of the younger embryo shown in plate 7, figures 19 and 20, it is shown, at *v*, communicating with the branchial pouches, *t, t*, of the pharynx.

The tissue that occupies the space between the three chambers in figures 21 and 22, and which is badly preserved, may perhaps be the notochord and nervous system.

ON A NEW SPECIES OF GROMIA (G. APPENDICULARIÆ).

On the tails of some of our specimens of *Oikopleura* unicellular parasites were found. One of them is shown in plate 4, figure 12. They are rooted in the substance of the tail by a tuft of pseudopodia that do not anastomose, and the exposed body is covered by a thin, transparent, stiff capsule. The organism is unquestionably a *Gromia,* and we propose for it the specific name, *Gromia appendiculariæ.*

EXPLANATION OF REFERENCE LETTERS ON PLATES.

a. Anus.
b. Endostyle.
c. Membranoblasts.
d. Œsophagus.
e. Pharynx.
f. Mouth.
g. Stomach.
h. Right lobe of stomach.
i. Left lobe of stomach.
j. The large cells that cover more than half the body.
k. Right gill.
l. Left gill.
m. Reproductive organ.
n. Gelatinous mass.
o. Parasites.
p. Openings through which the currents of water enter the house.
q. Opening through which the water is discharged, and the animal escapes when it leaves the house.
r. Egg.
s. Embryo.
t. Branchial pouches of pharynx.
u. Spiracles.
v. Stomach (?) of embryo.
w. Chorda (?) of embryo.
x. Root-like process from the body of the embryo, embedded in the tail of the adult.
y. Internal or branchial spiracle, through which the branchial pouch of the pharynx opens.
z. Follicle cells.
ab. Part of tail of adult.
ac. External opening of spiracle.
ad. The median oral division of the pharynx, showing its communication with the two branchial pouches, *t. t.*

EXPLANATION OF PLATES.

PLATE 1.

FIG. 1. *Salpa florida,* solitary form, dorsal view of adult.
FIG. 2. *Salpa florida,* solitary form, ventral view of adult.
FIG. 3. *Salpa florida,* solitary form, digestive organs of adult.
FIG. 4. *Salpa florida,* solitary form, ventral view of young 4.5 mm. long.
FIG. 5. *Salpa floridana,* aggregated form, side view.
FIG. 6. *Salpa floridana,* aggregated form, ventral view.

PLATE 2.

FIG. 7. *Salpa floridana,* solitary form, side view of very young embryo.
FIG. 8. *Salpa pinnata,* aggregated form.
FIG. 9. *Salpa floridana,* aggregated form, dorsal view of colony.

PLATES 3 TO 8.

All figures on plates 3 to 8 refer to *Oikopleura tortugensis* nov. sp.

PLATE 3.

FIG. 1. Side view of body of *Oikopleura tortugensis.*
FIGS. 4 and 5. Views of the house.
FIG. 6. Gregarina-like parasites in the house.

PLATE 4.

FIG. 2. Ventral view of body of adult.
FIG. 3. Dorsal view.
FIG. 11. Side view of entire adult animal.
FIG. 12. Rhizopod *Gromia* rooted to the tail of *Oikopleura.*

PLATES 5 AND 6.

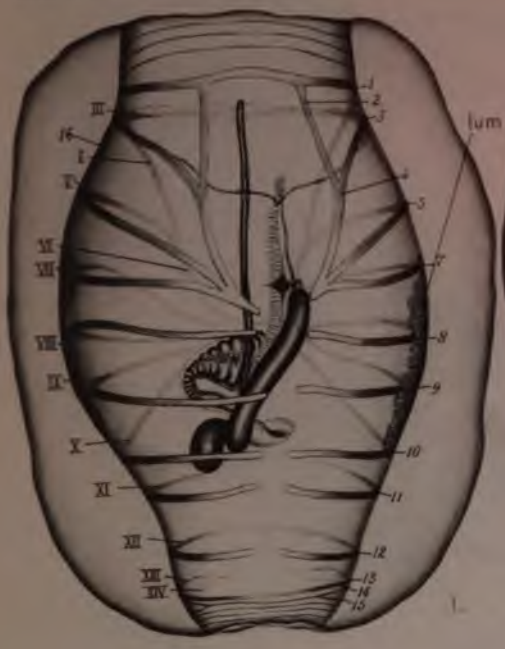
FIGS. 7, 8, 9, 10. Digestive and reproductive organs of adult.

PLATE 7.

FIG. 13. Part of tail, magnified 13 diameters, showing eggs and embryos rooted as parasites upon it.
FIG. 14. Ventral view of embryo magnified 300 diameters.
FIG. 15. Dorsal view of the embryo shown in figure 14.
FIG. 16. Egg within its follicle, attached to the tail.
FIGS. 19 and 20. Views of an embryo younger than the one shown in figures 14 and 15.

PLATE 8.

FIGS. 17 and 18. Views of the embryo shown in figures 19 and 20, plate 7.
FIGS. 21 to 25. Sections of the embryo shown in figures 14 and 15, plate 7. Figure 23 most anterior section. Figures 24 and 25, sections of the root of attachment imbedded within the tissues of the tail of *Oikopleura tortugensis.*



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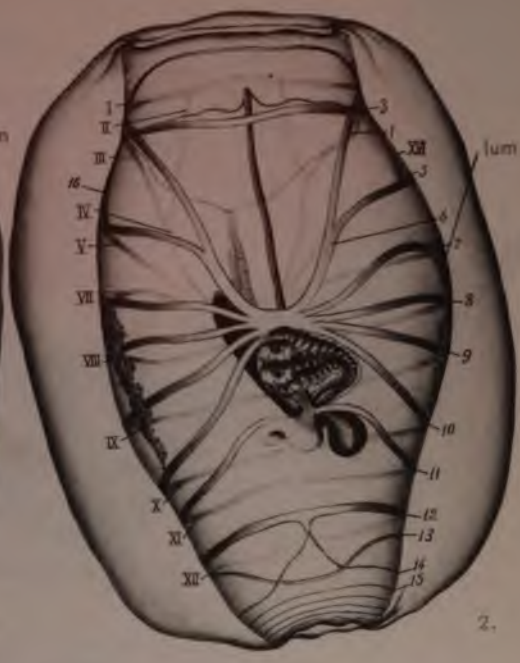

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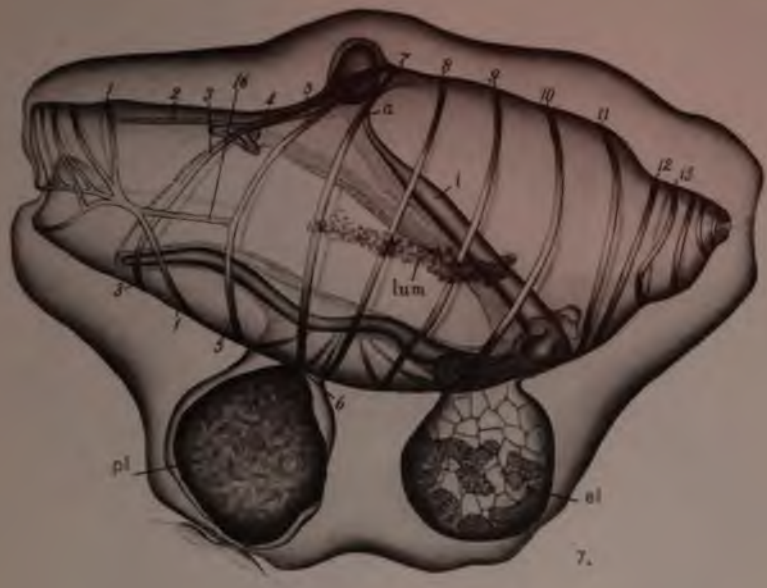

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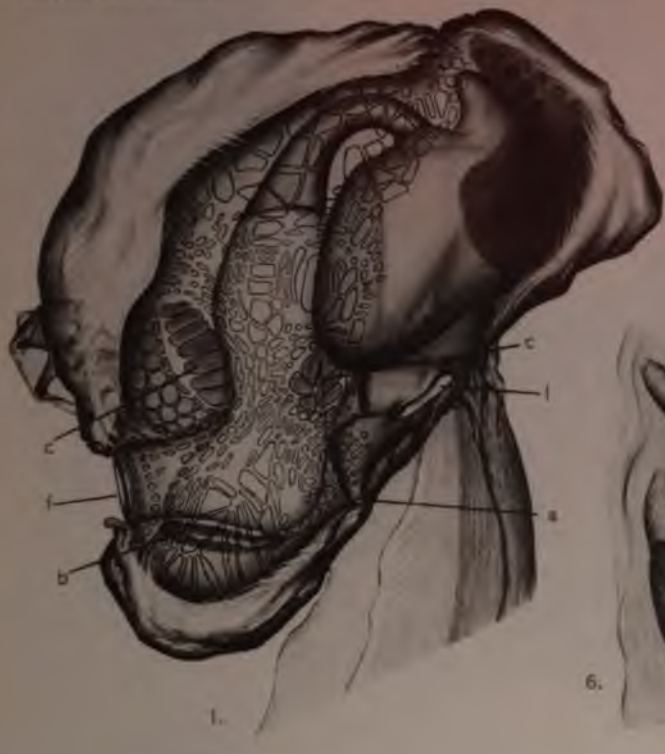

1.

6.

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E. KELLNER del.

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3

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11

G. KELLICER del.

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d

d
a
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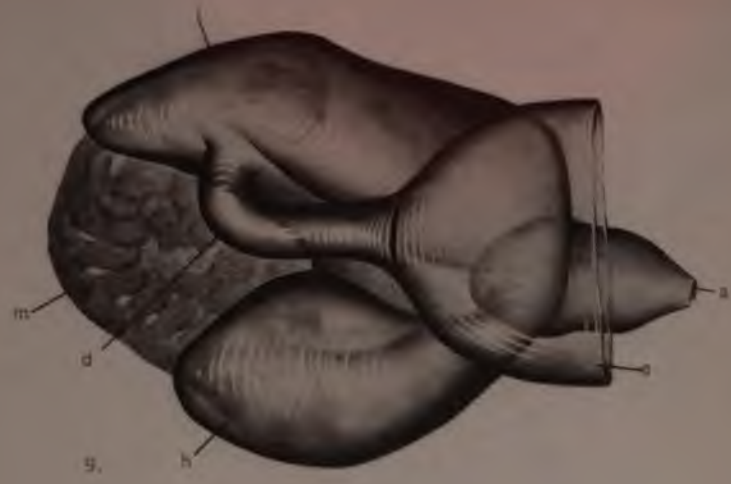
m



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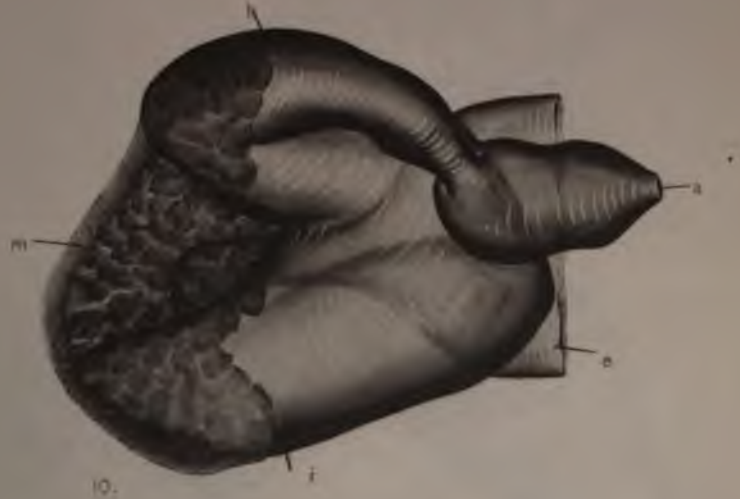

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13.

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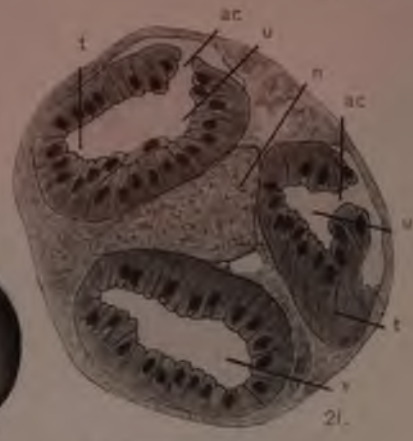
19.

C. KELLNER del.

18.

17.



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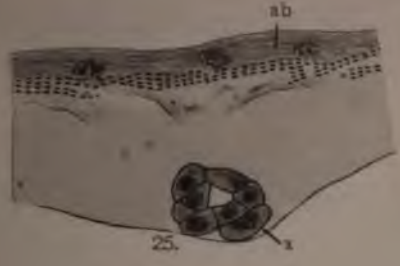

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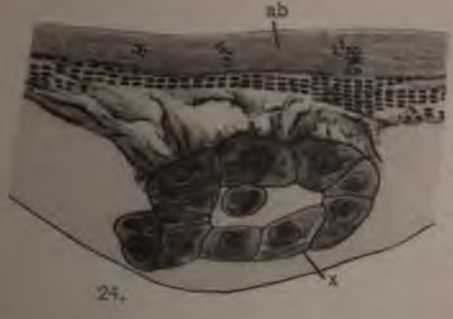

24.

23.

G. KELLNER del.

V. THE ORIGIN OF THE LUNG OF AMPULLARIA

BY WILLIAM KEITH BROOKS AND BARTJIS McGLONE

Plates 1–7

THE ORIGIN OF THE LUNG OF AMPULLARIA.

By W. K. Brooks and Bartgis McGlone.

INTRODUCTORY.

One of the authors was able to visit and partially explore the Everglades of Florida, in March, 1906, through the courtesy of the Director of the Marine Biological Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, Dr. Alfred G. Mayer, in whose company the expedition was made. As we pushed our way through the tall reeds and grasses that cover the shallow water of the Everglades, we found great numbers of small eggs attached to the stems, above the surface of the water, but close to it (fig. 8, plate 1).

The eggs are arranged in vertical rows and inclosed in calcareous shells, resembling, in this respect, the eggs of the terrestrial pulmonate gasteropods. We also found, in the water, the prosobranchiate gasteropod, *Ampullaria,* in great abundance, and when some of the older eggs were opened, they were found to contain young ampullarias. The Paludinidæ, which are closely related to the Ampullaridæ, are aquatic, viviparous, and breathe by gills; and their structure seems to indicate that they are true prosobranchs, descended from, and closely related to, the marine prosobranchs. *Ampullaria* has gills, is partially aquatic, and seems to be a true prosobranch; but as it has a lung, and is able to breathe air and live out of the water, and as it also lays, in the air, eggs with calcareous shells like those of the terrestrial pulmonates, the question whether it, and the Paludinidæ, are primarily pulmonates with secondary resemblances to the prosobranchs, or primarily prosobranchs with secondary resemblances to the pulmonates, suggests itself. As the embryonic history of the organs of respiration may be expected to throw light upon this question, a quantity of eggs was collected and taken to the Marine Laboratory in the Tortugas. There the eggs were opened, the embryos removed, sketched and studied, and then hardened and preserved for more thorough examination.

Sections show that the lung is a member of the series of gill-filaments, and it must be regarded as a modified filament, or more than one. It is, therefore, a secondary acquisition which is not derived from the lung of the pulmonates.

Both lung and gill arise very early, and simultaneously, in the embryonic

history. In a young embryo, soon after the mantle is formed, a ridge or thickening of the epithelium of its inner surface indicates the region where the gill-filaments, the osphradium, and the lung are to arise. The osphradium is developed from one end of this ridge, the gill-filaments from the other, and between the two the ridge becomes infolded into the substance of the mantle to give rise to the lung, which may be regarded as a modified and invaginated gill-filament. The similarity of the lung to that of the pulmonates is nothing more than a new illustration of resemblance between organs that have been acquired independently under like physiological conditions.

DESCRIPTIVE.

MATERIAL AND METHODS.

The investigation that is here described is based upon the study of the young stages in the development of an *Ampullaria* which occurs abundantly in the Everglades of Florida. It is identified as *Ampullaria depressa* Say by Professor Wm. H. Dall. The shell of the adult is shown of the natural size in plate 1, figures 1 and 2; and at two early stages in figures 3, 4, 5, and 6. Of these, 3 and 4 show the shell, enlarged, at the time when the young mollusk leaves the egg, while that of a young embryo is shown, much more enlarged, in 5 and 6. The eggs are laid, two or three inches above the level of the water, on the stems of the reeds and grasses, in vertical rows that are usually regular, as is shown in figure 8. Each is attached separately by a tenacious cement or glue. They are inclosed in white, chalky, calcareous shells. As the yolk is pink and, at first, fills the shell, while it is shrunken and partially replaced by air in the older eggs, these undergo a change of color during development, the younger ones being pink, while the older ones are white. It is clear that the attempt to distinguish species by separating ampullarias with pink eggs from those with white ones rests upon a misconception.

It is well known that *Ampullaria* has both gills and lung, and is adapted for both aquatic and aerial respiration. The lung is a large, elliptical, thin-walled pouch in the mantle, with an opening that is on the left side, above the left siphon, and immediately posterior to the osphradium. It is well shown in figures 5, 6, 7, and 8 of plate 1 of the Atlas of the Mollusca of the Voyage de l'Astrolabe.

The series of embryos that afforded the material for this research is complete, so far as the history of the respiratory organs is in question. In the younger ones the shell is a thin, transparent flat cap, and there are no traces of gills nor of lung; and the collection includes an abundance of embryos at each successive stage up to the time of hatching.

The young mollusks were kept alive in captivity for four weeks or more after hatching, but they did not undergo any observable change.

Those that were kept immersed drowned before the end of the second day, but those that were kept in damp air or were permitted to climb out of the water, remained in good health. The adults survive an immersion of a month or more without injury, but they leave the water occasionally when permitted to do so.

The embryos that have been studied were washed out of the broken shells by a stream of water, and they were fixed in picro-acetic acid or in formalin and preserved in 70 per cent alcohol. After the shells were removed by dilute nitric acid (8 to 15 drops in 100 c.cm. of alcohol) they were cut into sections in three planes, transverse, horizontal, and sagittal, a transverse section being one that is perpendicular to the long or principal axis of the extended embryo; horizontal, one that is parallel to the principal axis and at right angles to the median plane of morphological symmetry; sagittal, parallel to the principal axis and to the median plane of symmetry.

Haidenhain's hematoxylin was used for staining on the slide, with eosin as counterstain. Excellent results were obtained by shortening time. For instance, the alum bath was used for one or two hours, and the hematoxylin for only half an hour. Embryos that were to be mounted whole were stained in acid borax carmine and cleared with clove oil.

THE GENERAL ANATOMY OF THE EMBRYO.

In order to make the account of the development of the organs of respiration intelligible, it should be preceded by an outline sketch of the general anatomy of the embryos.

The anatomy of the embryo, at the time when the first traces of the organs of respiration are found, will be understood from plate 1, figure 7, and plate 3, figure 11. Plate 1, figure 7, is a surface view of a young embryo, and plate 3, figure 11, a reconstruction of a series of oblique sagittal sections of a slightly older one. Both are of the same length, 1.2 mm.

The anterior region consists of a great head-vesicle, *hv*, and the foot, *f*. In the ventral anterior region of the vesicle is a lipped opening, the mouth, *m*. Above this, and encircling the vesicle, is a ciliated ridge, the velum, *v*. The foot, *f*, is longer than broad, and its lower surface is flattened. On its posterior border are a few large, clear cells, apparently calcareous, three of which are shown in plate 1, figure 7. In young embryos they are large and numerous, but they disappear as growth progresses, and none are to be found at the stage shown in plate 3, fig. 11. On the dorsal surface of the posterior region of the foot the ectoderm becomes thickened and secretes a calcareous operculum, *o*. The posterior region of the body, with the mantle, mantle-chamber, and shell, is shown in front view in plate 1, figure 7, and in section in plate 3, figure 11. It resembles a bowl in shape, with the inner concave surface facing to the right. The convex left-hand surface is composed of the thickened ectoderm that secretes the shell, *sh*.

It is surrounded by a folded ridge, *mf,* the margin of the shell-gland. In plate 3, figure 11, the shell covers the whole of the posterior end of the body, and the raised edges of the shell-gland are pushed far apart. The growth of the shell brings about changes in the position of the mantle-chamber, in that of the mantle itself, and in that of other organs, as will be noted later.

From the mouth the œsophagus, *oe,* runs upward, within the head-vesicle, to the dorsal anterior region, where it opens into a huge chamber, the primitive stomach, *pr. st.,* which fills most of the head-vesicle. The sac of the radula (*r,* fig. 11) arises from the posterior (ventral) border of the œsophagus near the mouth, and extends under the ventral surface of the primitive stomach. A pair of salivary glands that are not shown in the figure arises from the œsophagus, near the mouth, as a pair of pouches or outgrowths. The primitive stomach narrows posteriorly and gives rise to the intestine, which, arising on the left, bends to the right, and opens into the cavity of the mantle, through the anus, *a,* which is at first median and ventral, but moves upward on to the right side of the mantle as development advances. Near the anus there is, in young embryos, a rosette-shaped cluster of large transparent cells like those that have been mentioned on the foot. They persist until about the time of hatching. The buccal and cerebral ganglia arise as compact groups of spindle-cells below and above the radula, while a similar group of cells arises in the posterior part of the foot and becomes the pedal ganglia.

The heart is shown in plate 3, figure 11, near the bottom of the figure; although the opening through which the auricle, *au.,* communicates with the ventricle, *ven,* does not lie in the plane of this section. The heart is inclosed in a spacious pericardium, *per,* with a thin wall of spindle-shaped mesoderm-cells. The aortic sinus, which arises as a split in the mesoderm, is shown at *a. s.* in figure 11, which cuts it in the region of the foot and again close to the pericardium. The right kidney, which is functional in the adult, is shown in figure 11 at *k.* It, as well as the abortive left kidney, arises as an evagination from the pericardium, while its duct, which is far to the right of the plane of the section, arises as an invagination of the inner surface of the mantle where this becomes continuous, on the extreme right, with the body-wall.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ORGANS OF RESPIRATION.

In the adult these are on or under the inner surface of the mantle, and consist of the lung, the right gill, and the osphradium; and they stand in intimate anatomical relation to the heart and the renal organ. The lung is a large, elliptical, thin-walled pouch which opens into the chamber of the mantle through an aperture that is protected by valves. The opening is on the left side of the mantle above the left siphon and posterior to the osphradium—a small, oblong, laminated organ, about 3 mm. long. The gill ex-

tends along the right boundary of the lung, from which it is incompletely separated by a fold or ridge on the body (plate 5, fig. 15; also plate 57, fig. 6, Atlas of the Mollusca of the Voyage de l'Astrolabe). Anteriorly the gill diverges from the lung and ends, together with it, on the extreme left, dorsal to the heart, into the auricle, of which the veins of both organs enter through a common trunk.

The earliest stage in the development of the organs of respiration is shown, in surface view, in plate 1, figure 7, at *resp. rud.;* and, in section, in plate 2, figure 9. It makes its appearance as two parallel ridges, *g. r* and *o. r*, separated by a furrow, *l. r*. As the section shows, the ridges arise as thickenings of the epithelium of the mantle. One of them, *g. r*, is the rudiment of the gill, and the other (*o. r*) the rudiment of the osphradium; while the furrow, *l. r*, is the first trace of the lung, which is ciliated. The substance of the mantle, between the inner layer of epithelium which gives rise to the organs of respiration and the outer layer which forms the shell-gland, *sg*, is loosely filled with mesoderm, which is derived from the ectodermal epithelium by migration. At the stage that is shown in the figure the mesoderm is so arranged as to leave an unoccupied space, the pulmonary sinus, *p. s.*

A section of a stage that is somewhat older is shown in figure 10. Comparison with figure 9 shows that the gill-filament, *g. r.*, grows through the thickening and multiplication of the epithelial cells together with the multiplication of the underlying mesoderm. In the region of the lung, *l. r.*, the thickening and multiplication of the epithelium are of such character that they lead to an infolding instead of an outpushing, as is illustrated by the figure. An older stage, with traces of three gill-filaments, is shown in plate 3, figure 11. This is a reconstruction from a series of oblique sagittal sections of an embryo about 1.2 mm. long, with a shell that is nearly hemispherical, *sh*.

The lung, *l. r.*, is now deeply infolded and there are three gill-folds, *r. g. f.* The pulmonary sinus, *p. s*, is now a well-defined chamber under the respiratory organs, and it now opens into the auricle, *au*, by an aperture that is not shown in the figure. The gill-filaments are filled with mesoderm in which there is as yet no indications of a cavity. The mantle, mantle-chamber, and respiratory organs, at this stage, are shown, more enlarged, in plate 4, figure 12. The gill-filaments are filled with a compact mass of mesoderm, in the plane of the section, although this is looser to the right of the section and the interspaces communicate with the pulmonary sinus, *p. s.* The lung, *l. r.*, bends to the left as far as the osphradium, which is now nearly round.

The chamber of the mantle of an older ambryo, 1.4 mm. long, is shown in plate 5, figure 14, in order to illustrate the relation of the respiratory organs to other structures; while these organs are shown, more enlarged, in plate 4, figure 13, to illustrate the details. They are from an embryo

with a shell that nearly half covers it, with knob-like tentacles with eyes, and other approximations to the structure of the adult. The gill runs obliquely from left to right, and its filaments are visible through the shell in an entire embryo.

Figure 14 is a transverse section through the posterior half of this embryo. On the right, near the lower point of the mantle-chamber (near the top of the figure), is the rectum, *rec;* a cylindrical tube lined with columnar epithelium. Above the rectum (to the right of it in the figure) is a well-defined group of spindle-shaped mesoderm cells, the kidney, *k.* On the right (bottom of the figure) is the thin-walled pericardium, *per.* Above (to the right of) this is the pulmonary sinus, *p. s.* The gill-filaments, *g. f,* now project freely into the chamber of the mantle, *m. c,* the newer ones arising on the left (below in the figure) between the older filaments and the lung, *l. g,* which is a deep groove running forwards (downwards in the figure). The gills and lung are shown, more enlarged, in plate 4, figure 13. The gill-filaments are outfoldings of the columnar epithelium of the mantle, and they are loosely filled with a tissue of spindle-shaped mesoderm cells, between which are spaces that communicate with the pulmonary sinus, *p. s.* The lung-groove is lined with elongated ectoderm cells covered, on its internal surface, by a cap of mesoderm cells which arise from the ectoderm, as the illustration shows.

The chamber of the mantle, with the lung, *l.,* the gill, *g. f,* and the adjacent organs, are shown, at four successive stages of advanced development, in plate 6, figure 17; plate 6, figure 16; plate 7, figure 18, and plate 5, figure 15; the last figure showing the respiratory organs at the time of hatching. In this series, figure 16 is from an embryo 1.8 mm. long. The shell is shown, at this stage, in plate 1, figures 5 and 6, with one complete turn in the spiral.

The section shown in figure 17 is one that, if continued, would pass through the stomach, the liver, the operculum, and the part of the foot that is ventral to the operculum. The part of the section that is figured shows, besides the respiratory organs, the rectum, *rec;* the kidney, *k;* the osphradium, *osph,* and part of the pericardium, *per.* The lung, *l.,* is a deep pit, with an opening into the chamber of the mantle and is constricted by a projecting fold, *r,* of the respiratory region. While figure 16 is from an older embryo, it shows the anatomical relations that would be shown in another section of the stage shown in figure 17, and the two figures may be regarded as showing the lung, *l.,* in two sections of a single specimen. In figure 16 the cavity of the lung, *l.,* occupies nearly the whole thickness of the mantle, so that its lining of epithelium is separated from the epithelium of the shell-gland only by a thin layer of mesoderm. In this figure the intestine, *int,* is shown as a fold in the wall of the stomach. Figure 18 is from an embryo about 2.1 mm. long, with a shell like that

which is shown in plate 1, figures 3 and 4. The lung is deeply infolded and the section cuts nine gill-filaments, *g. f.*

Plate 5, figure 15, is from a young *Ampullaria,* at the time of hatching, with its organs of respiration in their definitive adult condition. The lung, *l,* is now a spacious chamber occupying most of the thickness of the mantle and opening into its chamber by a small, closable aperture.

At about this time the gill and the lung become separated from each other by a valvular fold (*part*) which grows out from the body into the chamber of the mantle.

Summary.—The gills, the lung, and the osphradium of *Ampullaria* arise simultaneously, or nearly so, in the embryo; and they are developed out of a ridge or thickening of the epithelium of the mantle. They must, therefore, be regarded as a series of homologous organs specialized among themselves in different directions, and not as independent acquisitions. There is no reason to think that there is any ancestral connection or relationship between the lung of *Ampullaria* and that of the pulmonates, although the embryonic history of the lung of *Ampullaria* shows that the origin of the lung of the pulmonates through the modification of a gill, or part of a gill, is not impossible. The lung of *Ampullaria* becomes functional before the gill does; for the newly hatched young die very quickly if they are prevented from leaving the water, while the adults survive a long immersion.

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DESCRIPTION OF PLATES.

Letters of Reference.

an. Anus.
a. s. Aortic sinus.
au. Auricle.
f. Foot.
g. r. Rudimentary gill.
r. g. f. Rudimentary gill filament.
g. f. Gill filament.
r. Fold that forms part of floor of lung.
h. v. Head vesicle.
k. Kidney.
l. r. Rudimentary lung.
l. g. Lung groove.
l. Lung.
m. Mouth.
m. c. Cavity of mantle.
m. f. Edge of shell gland.
n. Nerve tissue.
oe. Œsophagus.
o. Operculum.
o. r. Rudimentary osphradium.
osph. Osphradium.
part. Partition of cavity of mantle.
per. Pericardium.
p. s. Pulmonary sinus.
p. v. Pulmonary vein.
r. s. Radula sac.
rec. Rectum.
resp. rud. Rudiment of organs of respiration.
sh. Shell.
sh. g. Shell gland.
p. st. Primitive stomach.
st. Stomach.
v. Velum.
ven. Ventricle.

EXPLANATION OF PLATES.

PLATES 1 TO 7.

All of the figures are of *Ampullaria depressa* Say.

PLATE 1.

FIGS. 1 and 2. Adult, natural size.
FIGS. 3 and 4. Enlarged view of shell at time of hatching.
FIGS. 5 and 6. Enlarged view of shell of unhatched embryo 1.8 mm. long.
FIG. 7. Surface view of an unhatched embryo 1.2 mm. long.
FIG. 8. Eggs attached to grass.

PLATE 2.

FIGS. 9 and 10. Sections of the organs of respiration in their earliest stages. Figure 10 shows a stage somewhat older than that illustrated in figure 9.

PLATE 3.

FIG. 11. Reconstruction from a series of oblique sagittal sections of an embryo in the stage shown in figure 7, plate 1.

PLATE 4.

FIG. 12. Sagittal section of mantle-chamber and respiratory organs in an embryo 1.2 mm. long.
FIG. 13. Transverse section of the mantle-chamber of an embryo 1.4 mm. long.

PLATE 5.

FIG. 14. Transverse section of the mantle chamber of an embryo 1.4 mm. long.
FIG. 15. Section of the respiratory organs at the time of hatching.

PLATE 6.

FIGS. 16 and 17. Section of mantle-chamber showing lung, gill, etc. Figure 16 shows a stage wherein the embryo is 1.8 mm. long and is older than that shown in figure 17.

PLATE 7.

FIG. 18. Section of an unhatched embryo 2.1 mm. long.

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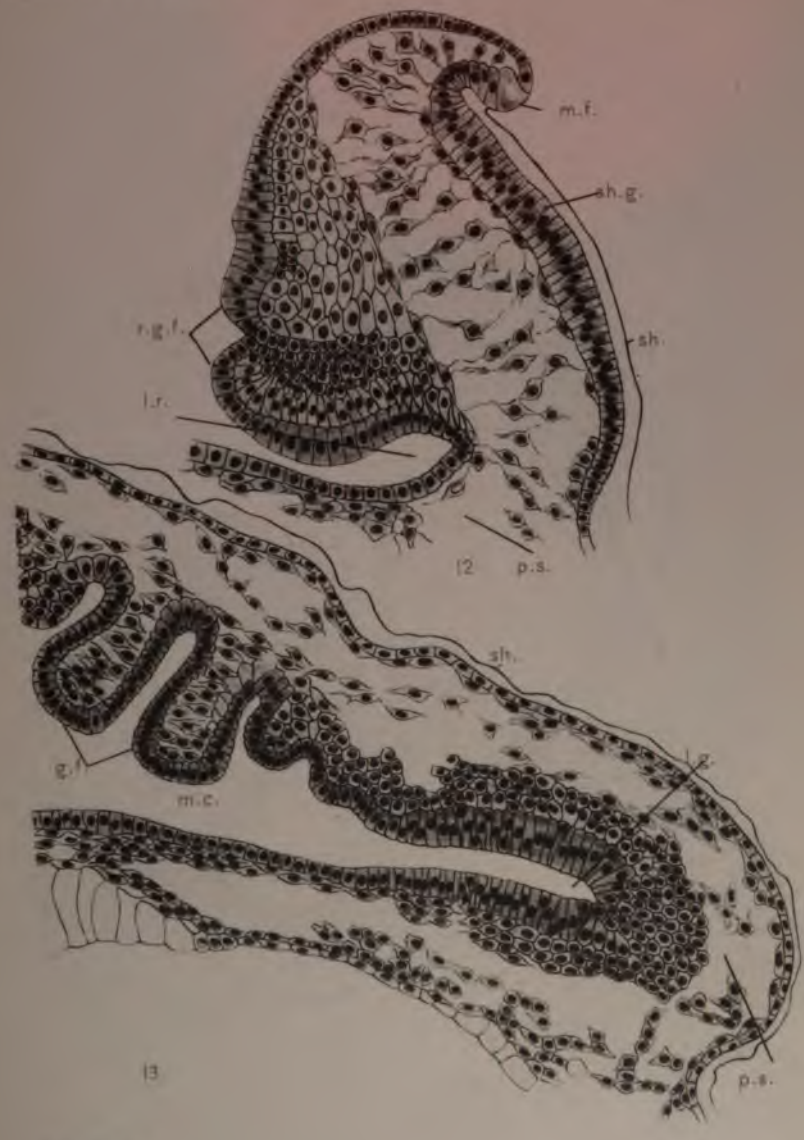

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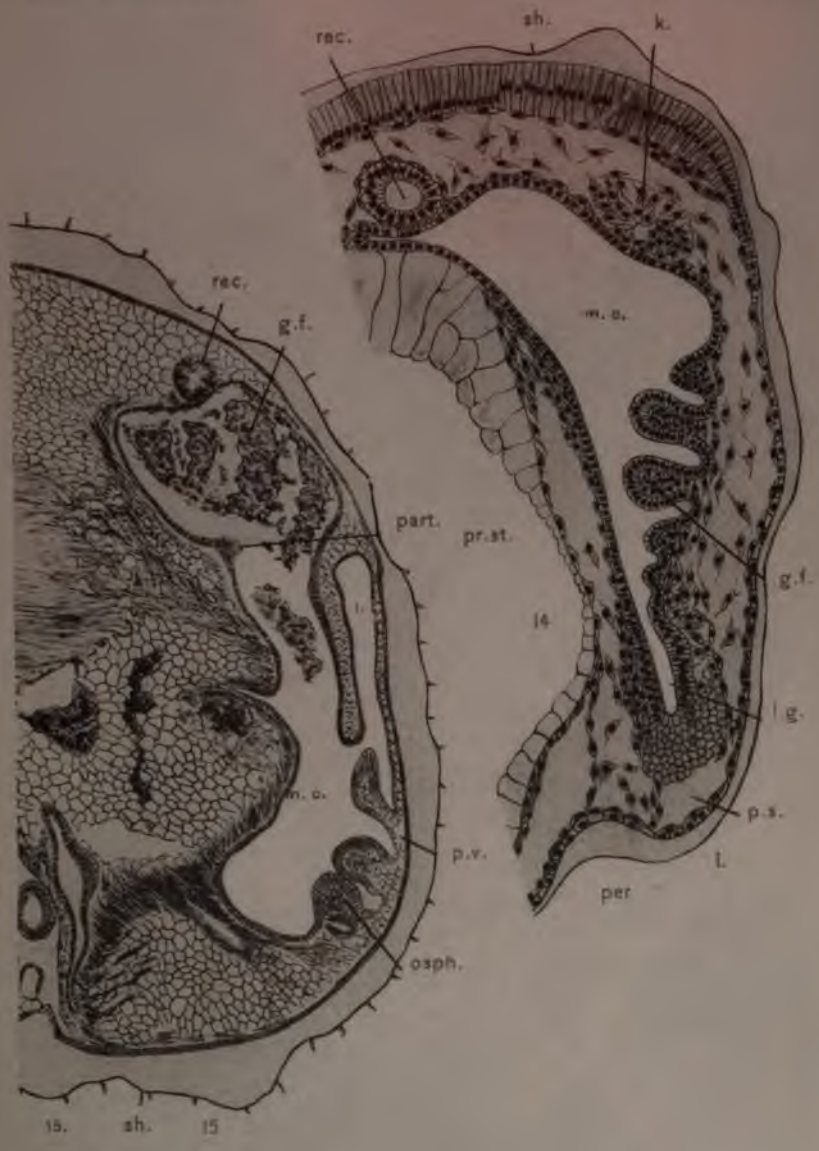

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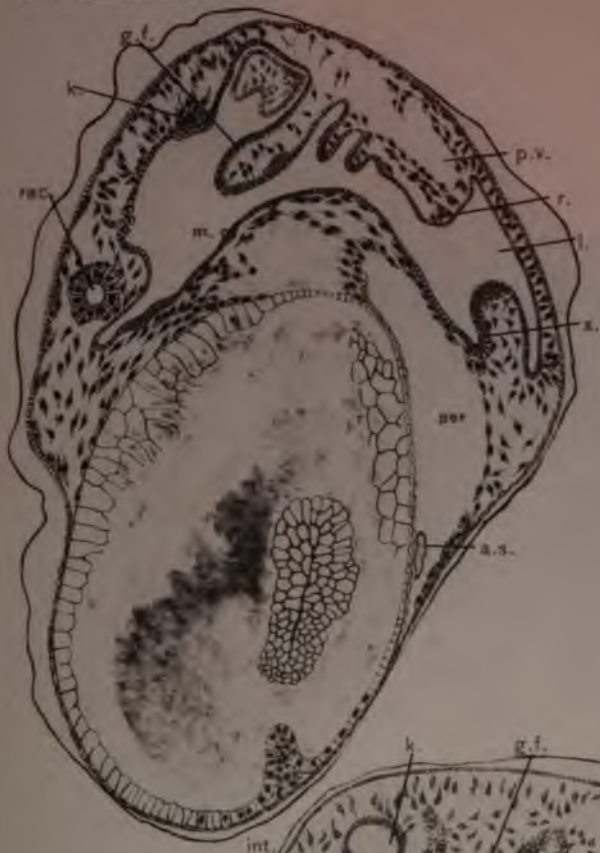

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VI. THE ANNUAL BREEDING-SWARM OF THE ATLANTIC PALOLO

BY ALFRED GOLDSBOROUGH MAYER

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1 plate

MAYER—PALOLO

THE "ATLANTIC PALOLO," EUNICE FUCATA.

THE ANNUAL BREEDING-SWARM OF THE ATLANTIC PALOLO.

By Alfred Goldsborough Mayer.

The habits of the "Atlantic palolo" are quite similar to those of the palolo worm of Samoa and the Fiji Islands. The worms are, however, specifically different, the Atlantic palolo being *Eunice fucata* Ehlers, and the Pacific worm *E. viridis* Gray. Moreover, the annual breeding-swarm of the Pacific palolo comes upon or near the day of the last quarter of the moon in October and November, whereas the Atlantic palolo swarms within three days of the day of the last quarter of the moon between June 29 and July 28. The annual swarming of the Atlantic palolo has been observed only at Tortugas, Florida, and although the worm is abundant in the Bahamas and in other parts of the West Indies, it has not been observed to swarm elsewhere than at Tortugas. This may be due to lack of observation, but in 1903 I looked for the swarm in Nassau Harbor, Bahamas, on every morning between July 10 and 24, inclusive, but no swarm occurred, although in the same year, at Tortugas, Florida, Mr. George R. Billbury observed a dense swarm on July 17, this being the day of the last quarter of the moon.

The Atlantic palolo worm lives within crevices in dead, corroded coral, or in limestone beach-rock which has become honey-combed by the burrows of marine animals. It inhabits only rocks which lie below low-tide level, but will live within reefs which are at least 6 fathoms below the surface.

Large worms are apt to be found only in large coral rocks, and the worm is usually coiled backward upon itself, or twisted within its tortuous cavity. Mature worms are about 250 mm. long, and the sexual products are confined to the 150 posterior segments, which, when swollen by the contained eggs or sperm, are thicker than the slender middle part of the worm's body. A mature male worm is represented in natural size in figure 1.

Before sunrise on the morning of the day of the annual breeding-swarm, the worm crawls out backwards from its burrow until all of the sexual segments and a portion of the slender middle part of its body have been protruded. A vigorous helical, corkscrew-like twisting movement then comes over the sexual segments. Viewed from the head end of the worm this screw-like twisting is in the direction of the movement of the hands of a watch. This rolling motion is confined exclusively to the posterior sexual

end of the worm, and ceases abruptly at the point marked *a* in figure 1, which is the segment separating the narrow middle part of the worm from the swollen sexual part of its body.

The sexual segments are thus twisted off at the point *a*, and on being set free they swim vertically upward to the surface, where the posterior end of the worm continues to progress rapidly along, moving backward, as is shown in figure 2.

The male sexual ends are salmon red or dull pink, while the females are greenish-gray or drab, so that they can readily be distinguished at a glance.

If while the sexual end is swimming we cut it into pieces, each separate length continues to swim backward with its characteristic rolling movement. This shows that the stimulus which produces the twisting movement is not localized, but is developed throughout the sexual end of the worm.

The worms continue to swim in all directions over the surface, and show no tendency to congregate in masses, each worm pursuing its own course without regard to its fellows of either sex. I have seen them in such abundance over the surface above the coral reefs at Tortugas that hardly a square foot of the surface was free of a worm.

When the sun is about to rise, and the first faint rays of light fall over the ocean, the worms begin to contract violently, so that the sexual products are cast out through rents and tears in the dermo-muscular wall, and the torn and shriveled cuticula sinks down to die upon the bottom (figure 3). Light is not the sole, but only a contributory, cause of this muscular spasm of contraction, for it will take place even in swimming worms which have been removed to a dark-room, although in this case the "bursting" of the worm may be delayed for an hour or more after all of its fellows in nature have cast forth their genital products and disappeared. Moreover, some few of the worms of the swarm discharge their genital products before the rising of the sun. Any mechanical shock will bring about an instant bursting of the worm, the females being far more sensitive than the males. It is comparatively easy to stupefy the males by slowly adding alcohol to the water and killing them without their bursting; but this is more difficult of accomplishment in the case of the females.

After casting off its posterior sexual segments, the anterior part of the worm crawls back into its burrow and regenerates a new sexual end. Only the mature worms cast off their posterior ends; the immature worms take no part in the swarming reaction.

This swarming of the Atlantic palolo has been observed for nine years at Tortugas, Florida. The principal swarm commonly occurs within three days of the day of the last quarter of the June 29 to July 28 moon, although smaller swarms may occur upon one or two days preceding or succeeding the day of the densest swarm. When the last quarter of the moon falls late in July there may be a response to the *first* quarter as well as to the last

quarter. The following record gives the *date* of the principal swarm in heavy type, while the dates upon which only a few worms were observed swarming are shown in ordinary type.

Record of the swarming of the Atlantic palolo, 1898 to 1908.

Year.	Dates upon which Atlantic palolo swarmed.	Date of moon's last quarter.	Year.	Dates upon which Atlantic palolo swarmed.	Date of moon's last quarter.
1898	July **9**, 10.....	July 10	[1]1903	July **17**.....	July 17
1899	**1**, 2.....	June 29	1905	9, 10, 21, **22**, 23, 24..	24
[1]1900	**19**.....	July 18	1906	**11, 12**, 13.....	13
1902	24, **25**, 28...	27	1907	**2, 3**.....	2
			1908	**10**, 19.....	19

[1] In 1900 and 1903, the dates of the principal swarm were observed by Mr. George R. Billbury, and I know nothing of the less conspicuous swarms of those years. In other years the swarms were observed by the author. No observations were made in 1901 and 1904.

The most interesting fact revealed by the above table is that in 1905, when the last quarter of the moon came late in July, about 200 worms were observed swarming on July 9, and a few fresh-laid eggs were found on the morning of July 10. The *first quarter* of the moon fell on July 9, 1905, and it is evident that the worm may respond to the *first* as well as to the *last* quarter of the moon. In 1908 the maximum swarm came on July 10, and the *first quarter* fell on July 6. A fair swarm also came on July 19, the day of the moon's last quarter; and these were the only swarms of the year. This is the more interesting in view of the observations of Osawa and Izuka that the Japanese palolo, *Ceratocephale osawai*, swarms in the Tokyo River at the time of the *new and the full* moon.

For the past five years I have been carrying out experiments designed to determine the nature of the stimulus to which the Atlantic palolo responds when it swarms. If at any time before the date of the normal swarm we crack open the rock within which a full-grown worm is living, the mechanical shock will often cause the worm to crawl partially or wholly backward out of its burrow. The worm is then very apt to break itself into lengths, and the sexual end often swims through the water with the corkscrew movement characteristic of the normal swarm. The worm may even constrict its muscles and cast out its genital products; but this is never done with such completeness as in the normal swarm, and even if the eggs be cast out within 24 hours of the date of normal swarm, they do not mature and no embryos develop.

Any appreciable impurity in the water, or the lack of sufficient circulation, will prevent the worms from swarming at the normal time. If we are to obtain reliable results, the water in which the worms are living must be free from an excess of carbon dioxide or other products of putrefaction, and this fact renders the experiments difficult of execution. In partially stagnant water the worms may live very well, but they will not take part in the

breeding-swarm, and if the lack of proper circulation is still greater the worms may still live, but their sexual products atrophy, and they do not react to the stimulus which calls forth the breeding-swarm in worms living under normal conditions.

Worms living in rocks which are placed in a floating live-car will still swarm, even though they be in a "tideless sea." Thus rocks containing full-grown worms were placed in a scow-shaped live-car 2 meters long, 1 meter wide, and 1 meter deep. This scow was allowed to float half full of water upon the sea, being buoyed up by barrels. Ample circulation was secured by holes in the sides and bottom, and a white canvas awning served to shield off the rays of the intense noon-day sun of the tropics. This scow was entirely open, so that moonlight fell freely upon it. In 1905 and in 1908, the rocks containing the worms were allowed to remain in the floating live-car for 30 days previous to the date of the normal swarm, but in 1907 they were placed in the floating scow only three days before the normal day of swarming; but in all three experiments *some* of the worms swarmed normally within three days of the day of the last quarter of the July moon. Altogether, 4 out of 11 mature worms swarmed normally in these tideless live-cars, but 7 of them did *not* cast off their posterior ends, but remained passive in their burrows.

In nature *all* of the mature worms swarm at the annual breeding-time, and this partial failure of the worms to swarm may indicate that the changing pressure due to rise and fall of tide over the reefs is a contributory but *not a necessary* component of the stimulus which calls forth the breeding-swarm. It is more probable, however, that confinement within the wood-inclosed space of the live-car and the lack of perfect circulation of water acted as a partial preventive of the swarming, and that the reaction is wholly independent of the rise and fall of the tide. In any event, it is evident that the worms *can* swarm normally in a tideless sea, and that rise and fall of tide is not a necessary or sole cause of the swarming.

On the other hand, the worms have never swarmed when moonlight was prevented from falling upon the rocks within which they lived. In order to test this, I had floating scows similar to those used in the previously described experiment, but they were provided with light-tight wooden covers, so that they could be closed at sunset every evening and opened soon after sunrise every morning, thus preventing the moonlight from falling upon the rocks. Altogether I had at least 22 mature worms in the rocks within these darkened live-cars, and in 1907 the moonlight was excluded for 5 days, in 1906 for 14 days, in 1905 for 30 days, and in 1908 for 2 days before the date of the swarm; but none of these worms showed any indication of swarming, and it appears that they could not respond, owing to the absence of light. It is probable, therefore, that the worms can not swarm unless moonlight falls upon the rocks. In nature the worms will swarm in

overcast or cloudy weather, so that even diffuse moonlight appears to be capable of calling forth the breeding-swarm.

In the Atlantic palolo the annual breeding-season is only of 1 to 6 days' duration, and the males outnumber the females in the ratio of about 3 to 2, whereas in *Nereis*, where the breeding-season is fully 100 days long, the males greatly outnumber the females. It is evident that a shortening of the breeding-season would cause a greater concentration of breeding individuals, and would therefore permit of a relative *decrease* in the number of *males* and a corresponding *increase* in the number of *females;* for whenever a female swarms it is important for the preservation of the species that there should be a male near her to fertilize her eggs. If the breeding-season be of long duration, the males must greatly outnumber the females to secure this fortuitous proximity, but if all of the females swarm within a few days very much fewer males will suffice to accomplish this purpose.

We have advanced beyond the period in the history of biology when one had but to discover an advantage to determine a cause; but that some such cause may have contributed to shorten the breeding-season in such animals as the Atlantic, Pacific, and Japanese palolo worms is shown by the fact that more eggs are fertilized when males are near the female than when they are far away. For example, I took a female Atlantic palolo from the midst of the swarm and placed her in sea-water 200 meters away from the nearest swarming males. Of the eggs which were laid by this female in the water removed from the place of the swarm only an occasional one developed, whereas practically every egg developed in the sea-water where males were near.

The polar bodies are given forth as soon as the eggs are cast out from the female, and fertilization occurs in the water; but the egg does not mature if it be cast out at any time other than that of the normal breeding-swarm. When about 10 to 15 hours old the larvæ are nearly all negatively phototactic either in diffuse light or in sunlight. When about 28 hours old, however, they mainly become positively phototactic and remain thus, even after the eighth day, when they will have ceased to swim through the water and have sunken to the bottom. Within 24 hours after sinking to the bottom, however, they become indifferent to light in so far as their movement is concerned.

The segmentation closely resembles that of *Nereis* and the larva is telotrochal.

Further accounts of the Atlantic palolo will be found in Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoology at Harvard College, 1900, vol. 36, pp. 1–14, plates 1–3, and in the Science Bulletin of the Museum of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, 1902, vol. 1, No. 3, pp. 93–103, 1 plate.

The Japanese palolo is treated of in detail by A. Izuka, 1903, Journal

of College of Science, University of Tokyo, vol. 17, article 2, 37 pp., 2 plates.

The Pacific palolo has been treated of by numerous writers, the most important modern accounts being those of B. Friedlander, 1898, Biolog. Centralblatt, Bd. 18, pp. 337–357, 2 figs.; of Collin, 1899, in Krämer's Bau der Korallenriffe, pp. 164–174, and of W. McM. Woodworth, 1903, American Naturalist, vol. 37, pp. 875–881, 1 fig. and 1907, Bulletin Museum Comparative Zoology at Harvard College, vol. 51, pp. 1–22, 3 plates.

Lysidice oele, the "wawo" of Amboina, Malay Archipelago swarms on the second and third nights after the full moon of March and April. It is described by R. Horst, 1905 (Over Wawo (*Lysidice oele* n. sp.) Rumphius Gedenkboek, Kolon. Mus. Haarlem, pp. 105–108).

EXPLANATION OF THE PLATE.

[The drawings are from life by the author.]

FIG. 1. Mature male with posterior sexual segments still attached. They are destined to break away at the point *a*.

FIG. 2. Female sexual segments swimming through the water, showing rolling, twisting movement of worm as it progresses backward.

FIG. 3. Torn and shrunken sexual segments sinking to bottom to die after having discharged the sexual products.

FIG. 4. Enlarged photograph of an immature male worm, 1.5 times the natural size. This worm was still alive when photographed.

VII. RHYTHMICAL PULSATION IN SCYPHOMEDUSÆ

BY ALFRED GOLDSBOROUGH MAYER

Director of the Department of Marine Biology,
Carnegie Institution of Washington

13 text figures

RHYTHMICAL PULSATION IN SCYPHOMEDUSÆ. — II.

By Alfred Goldsborough Mayer.

The following paper presents the results of a continuation of certain studies, the first report of which appeared in publication No. 47 of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1906. The present paper aims to correct certain errors in the previous report, and to announce some new results.

CONCLUSIONS.

(1) Sea-water is a balanced fluid neither inhibiting nor stimulating pulsation in *Cassiopea xamachana*. This is due to the fact that the sodium chloride of the sea-water is a powerful nervous and muscular stimulant; but the magnesium, calcium, and potassium are inhibitors, and exactly counterbalance the effect of the sodium chloride thus producing a neutral fluid.

The sea-water itself, being indifferent, permits any weak, constantly present, internal stimulus to produce the nervous responses which cause rhythmical pulsation of the muscles.

(2) The stimulus which causes pulsation is due to the constant formation of sodium oxalate in the terminal entodermal cells of the marginal sense-organs. This sodium oxalate precipitates *calcium*, as *calcium oxalate*, thus setting free sodium chloride and sulphate which act as nervous stimulants. Pulsation is thus caused by the constant maintenance at the nervous centers in the sense-organs of a slight excess of sodium over and above that found in the surrounding sea-water.

(3) If we cut a strip of heart tissue, or of subumbrella tissue of a medusa in such manner as to give it the shape of a ring or of any closed circuit, and then start a contraction-wave moving in any *one* definite direction through this circuit, the wave will continue to travel at a uniform rate around the circuit. This wave will maintain itself indefinitely, provided the circuit be long enough to permit each and every point in the path of the wave to remain at rest for a certain period of time before the return of the wave through the circuit. No one localized point on the circuit acts as a dominant center for maintaining the wave, but all points on the path of the wave take an equal share in passing the wave onward to points beyond them. In nature the structure of pulsating organs, and their manner of stimulation,

are designed especially to prevent such a circuit-wave from taking possession of the organ.

(4) In *Cassiopea* the pulsation-stimulus is conducted by the diffuse nervous network of the subumbrella, and is independent of the muscles which may or may not respond to its presence by contraction. In other words, conductivity of the pulsating tissue is independent of its contractibility.

(5) Strong primary nervous and muscular excitement followed by exhaustion and sustained muscular *tetanus* is produced in *Lepas* or in *Cassiopea* by a solution containing the amounts and proportions of NaCl + KCl + $CaCl_2$ found in sea-water. This tetanus may, however, be cured and normal pulsation restored by adding the amount and proportion of *magnesium* found in sea-water. Magnesium relaxes the muscles, and prevents tetanus. It has but little direct effect upon the nervous elements which alone transmit the pulsation-stimulus.

EXPERIMENTS.

Romanes and Eimer found that if we remove the marginal sense-organs of a scyphomedusa, the disk becomes paralyzed and does not pulsate spontaneously in sea-water. In 1906 the writer found, however, that any strip of subumbrella tissue of a scyphomedusa cut in the shape of a ring, or closed circuit, will pulsate rhythmically in sea-water, provided a contraction-wave be once started in the circuit.

Any stimulus, such as that given by contact with any soluble salt of potassium, sodium, lithium, barium, platinum, hydrogen (acid), or an electrical or mechanical shock, will produce a contraction-wave in the disk of the scyphomedusa *Cassiopea* and will serve to start rhythmical pulsation in a ring-shaped strip of paralyzed subumbrella tissue.

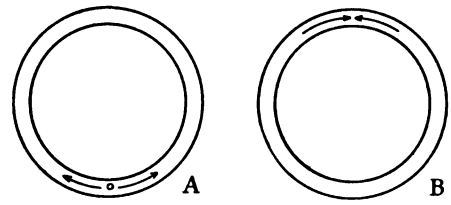

FIG. 1.—Annulling of pulsation which occurs when two waves of equal magnitude, coming in opposite directions, meet each other.

The contraction-wave arises from any point upon the ring of paralyzed subumbrella tissue which we may choose to stimulate. Two waves of *equal magnitude* may start from the stimulated point and travel in opposite directions from their common point of origin, as is shown in fig. 1, A. Under these conditions each wave travels around the ring until it meets the other wave coming in the opposite direction, as is seen in fig. 1, B. All movement ceases when these waves meet, for tissue which has been in contraction can not again contract until after an appreciable interval of rest; hence neither of the waves can stimulate the tissue which has only upon the instant previous been set into contraction by the other wave. Under the conditions described above, therefore, the whole ring gives a single contraction, and then ceases to pulsate.

More commonly, however, the two waves which arise from the stimulated point are *unequal,* one being strong and the other weak. This is doubtless caused by an inequality in the transmitting power of the nervous network on either side of the starting-point, and the stronger wave goes in the direction of the least resistance, as is shown in fig. 2, A. Under these conditions, when the strong contraction-wave meets the weak one (fig. 2, B), it is still capable of stimulating the tissue over which the weak wave has traveled, but the weak wave can not stimulate the tissue which has, only the instant before, been exhausted in responding to the stimulus of the strong

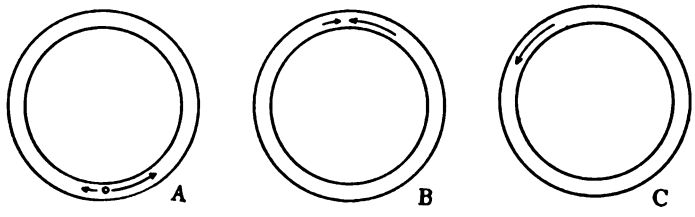

FIG. 2.—Showing that when a strong wave meets a weak one it suppresses the weak wave, and remains the only wave in the circuit.

wave. Thus the weak wave is annulled, and only one (the strong) wave remains to travel continuously around the ring in one direction, as is shown in fig. 2, C.

This single wave going constantly in one direction around the circuit may maintain itself for days traveling at a uniform rate. The circuit must, however, be long enough to allow each point to rest for an appreciable interval of time before the return of the wave. The wave is actually "trapped" in the circuit and must constantly drive onward through the tissue.

The ventricle of the extirpated heart of the loggerhead turtle (*Thalassochelys caretta*), if cut into ringed-shaped strips may also be caused to maintain itself in sustained pulsation in the manner described above for the scyphomedusa *Cassiopea.* The initial wave in the ring-shaped strip of turtle's heart may be started by an electrical or a mechanical stimulus, and will continue to travel at a uniform rate in a single direction around the ring until the dying of the tissue causes it to cease.

It is interesting also that this wave through the strip of turtle's heart passes mainly, if not wholly, through the dense, peripheral, muscular layer of the heart, the inner cavernated tissue being practically inert in so far as the pulsation-stimulus is concerned. The heart may be likened to a sponge inclosed within a periodically contracting bag. We meet with a parallel condition in the subumbrella tissue of Scyphomedusæ, where the peripheral nervous and muscular layers are all that are concerned in the pulsation; the thick gelatinous substance of the umbrella being a non-conductor and inert.

The point which was stimulated and from which the contraction-wave first arises is of no more importance in maintaining the rhythmical movement than is any other point on the ring. My conclusions of 1906 are erroneous in this respect, for the wave is *not* reinforced and sent forth anew every time it returns to its place of origin, but is maintained by each and

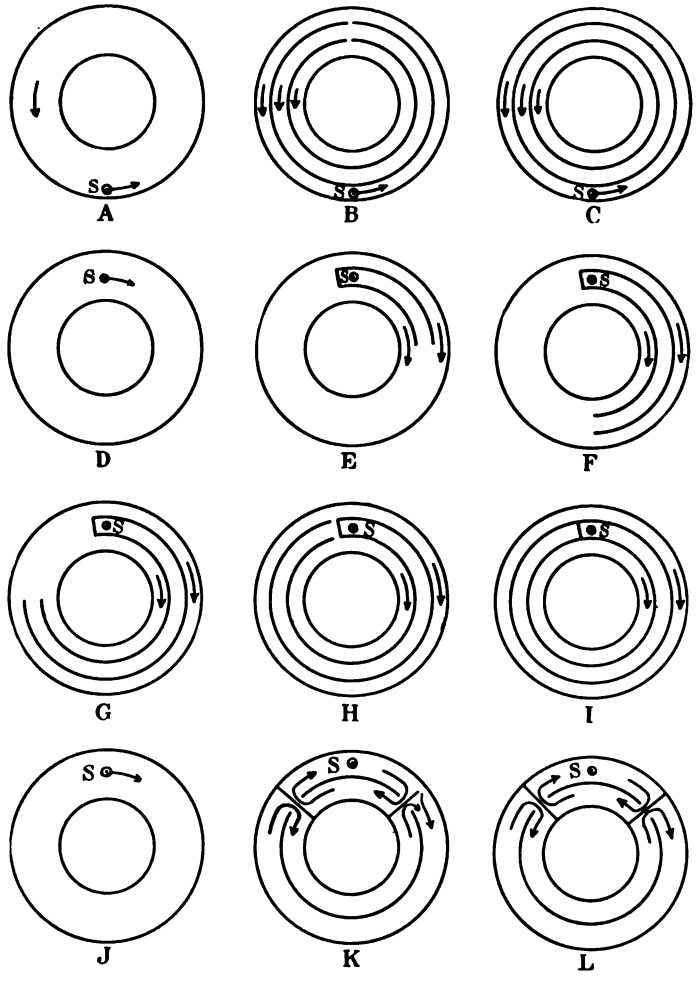

FIG. 3.—Showing non-importance of any definitely localized center in maintaining rhythmical pulsation.

every part of the ring in succession as it passes. We may prove this by causing the wave to originate at some definite point and then cutting away the tissue around this point: yet the wave continues unhindered through the circuit. Fig. 3, A–L will serve to illustrate this non-importance of any definitely localized center in maintaining the circuit-waves. For example,

in fig. 3, A–C, we see how a single broad ring may be finally divided by two annular cuts into three separate rings, all of which remain in sustained pulsation. In this case *s* marks the stimulated point whence the contraction-wave started, yet the two inner circles which are finally isolated from the point *s* continue to transmit and maintain the wave.

Similarly in fig. 3, D–I, we may completely isolate the stimulated point and prevent its sending out any stimuli, yet the narrow inner and outer annuli, made from the original broad ring, still remain in pulsation.

Fig. 3, J–L illustrate the same point by showing that by a series of cuts we may obtain two independent pulsating circuits in the place of the original simple ring-circuit. In this case it is evident that the original center of stimulation can be in but one of these circuits, yet both can remain in pulsation.

It is remarkable that these isolated circuit-waves, moving constantly in one direction through a circuit, are *not met with* in nature. Each pulsation of the heart, or of the medusa, is a thing separate and distinct from the contraction which preceded or from that which is to follow it. Indeed, the

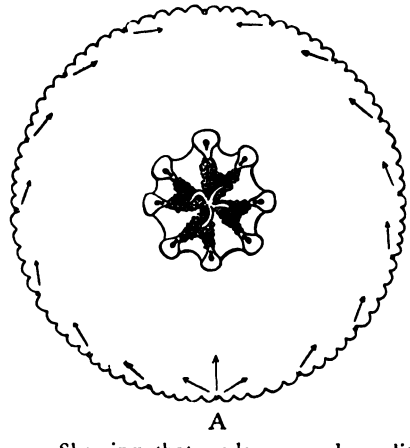

FIG. 4.—Showing that under normal conditions interference of contraction-waves coming in opposite directions prevents a rotary wave from being entrapped in the circuit.

heart, or pulsating medusa, contains within itself the means to *prevent* any single pulsation-wave from coursing constantly in one direction through the tissue. In the scyphomedusa, for example, the pulsation-stimuli originate in the marginal sense-organs, and the fastest-working sense-organ controls the rate of the pulsations. For example, the course of events in the case of each separate contraction is shown for *Cassiopea* in figure 4, where A is the sense-organ which has originated a contraction-wave. The wave of contraction spreads out on both sides of A and the wave of each side travels half the way around the subumbrella, where it meets with its fellow coming

in the opposite direction. When the two waves meet 180° away from their common point of origin they interfere with and annul each other, and a period of quiescence ensues until another contraction-stimulus is sent forth from a marginal sense-organ.

Under normal conditions the two side waves are of practically equal magnitude, and thus one can not overpower the other and travel constantly around the circuit in one direction. Such an accident is prevented by the interference and consequent suppression of the two waves, one by the other; but the protection is not perfect, for on several occasions I have started such a wave through a severe electrical or mechanical shock, and then the sense-organs, being exhausted by the wave which set them into play one after another, were powerless to control the pulsation, and the *single* wave rushed constantly around the subumbrella annulus, causing each and every part of the medusa to pulsate successively as it passed. The rate of pulsation under these unusual conditions was fully twice that of the isolated, *recurrent* contractions initiated by the sense-organs.

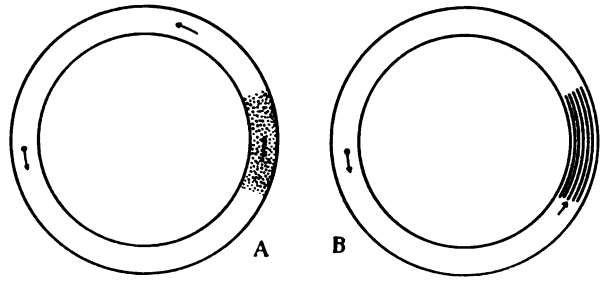

FIG. 5.—*A*, showing that a pulsation-wave may pass across newly regenerated tissue (dotted area) which contains no muscles. *B*, showing that a pulsation-wave can not pass through muscles (ruled area) from which the nervous network has been peeled away.

Such a circuit wave can not take possession of the vertebrate heart, for here each wave of contraction normally originates in the region of the sinus, then spreads over the auricles, and finally over the ventricle, whence it can not immediately return over its path. The pulsations of the heart are *recurrent*, and are rhythmical only in the sense that the separate pulsations follow one another, at sensibly equal intervals of time.

In the Scyphomedusæ the pulsation-stimulus is conducted by the diffuse nervous system of the subumbrella, and this stimulus causes the muscles to contract. The stimulus will pass through tissue which contains no muscles and can not contract, or through tissue wherein the muscles have been rendered incapable of contracting through the effects of distilled water, magnesium, curare, carbon dioxide, alcohol, etc.

On the other hand, the pulsation-stimulus can not pass through or be conducted by a muscle from which the nervous connections have been

peeled away. Thus in figure 5, *B*, the area ruled with annular lines represents a part of the ring from which the epithelial layer with its nervous network has been peeled away, leaving the muscles intact. Under these conditions the contraction is at once destroyed as soon as it reaches the border of the raw muscles and all movement ceases.

If, on the other hand, we cut away both muscles and epithelium, and allow the cut area to regenerate, the nervous network and epithelium will regenerate *before* the muscles reappear. Thus in figure 5, *A*, the dotted area represents a recently regenerated area, which contains no muscular elements, but over which the epithelium and nervous network has regenerated. The contraction-stimulus passes readily through this region, although it can produce no contractions in the dotted area where there are no muscles to contract; all other parts of the circuit wherein the muscles are found contract as soon as the wave reaches them. Indeed, the pulsation-stimulus is independent of the muscles, and passes through the nervous network whether the muscles respond to it by contraction or remain inert. This is illustrated by figure 6, where the dotted sector AD represents newly regenerated epithelium, which contains the diffuse nervous network, but has no muscular elements and therefore can not contract. The undotted part of the sector ABC is normal tissue containing muscular elements, but it is immersed beneath a 5/8m $MgSO_4$ solution, which renders the muscles incapable of contraction, although the pulsation-stimulus can still pass through the sector. The sector CD and the small undotted area around s is normal subumbrella tissue. If, now, a wave be started in this circuit, it will pass constantly around the ring, and wherever it passes through the sector CD or over the area s these regions contract, for they are normal tissue, but no contractions or other visible signs of the presence of the stimulus are exhibited by the sectors which lack muscular elements, or in which the muscles are rendered incapable of contraction through the effects of magnesium.

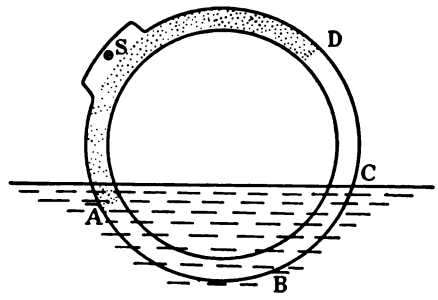

FIG. 6.—Showing how a pulsation-wave may pass from normal tissue (plain area), through tissue deprived of muscles (dotted area), and over muscles which have been rendered incapable of contracting through the effects of magnesium (immersed area).

But to return to our subject. if we cut a ring from the medusa's disk such as is shown in figure 7 and leave a long narrow strip (*AB*) attached to it, and then start a contraction-wave traveling around the ring, every time the wave passes the point *A* a side-tracked portion of the wave will pass along the strip from *A* to *B*. When each side-tracked wave comes to

the end *B* it dies out, for it can not return over the recently stimulated tissue along which it has just passed. Thus we see that the index strip *AB* simply serves to catch a portion of each wave which passes its base.

Now suppose we place the ring in a pure solution of magnesium chloride, and allow the index strip *AB* to remain in natural sea-water. Then the contraction-wave gradually dies out in the pulsating ring, for the magnesium paralyzes the muscles; and at the end of about a quarter of an hour all movement will have ceased in the ring, but for from 12 to 15 minutes after this we find that the strip *AB* still continues to transmit contractions at regular intervals of time. We see, then, that whenever the something which produced the contraction in the ring comes around to the point *A* it is still capable of setting up a contraction in the strip *AB*, although it can not now cause the muscles of the ring itself to pulsate.

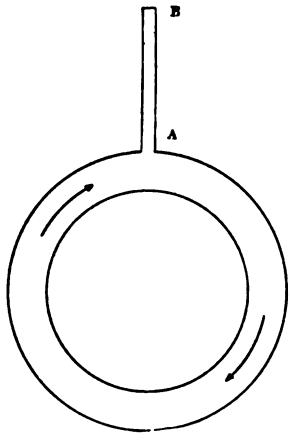

FIG. 7.—Showing that the pulsation-stimulus is nervous, not muscular, in nature.

The explanation is that the stimulus which produces pulsation is nervous in nature, and travels through the nervous tissue quite independent of the presence or absence of the muscles. When, therefore, the magnesium paralyzes the muscles the nervous stimulus still travels around the ring even though the muscles can not now respond to it by contraction.

The pulsation-stimulus is nervous, not epithelial, for in the exumbrella we find the epithelial but *no nervous* elements, yet the exumbrella tissue can neither pulsate nor conduct the pulsation-stimulus. The transmission of the stimulus which produces muscular contraction is therefore dependent upon the presence of nervous elements in the tissue.

Bethe, 1903,[1] in his important research upon the pulsation of *Rhizostoma* and *Cotylorhiza,* concludes that the pulsation-stimulus is nervous; for it readily passes over parts of the subumbrella where there are no muscles. Moreover he shows that the radial muscle-strands contract *before* the circular muscles, although the latter lie closer to the sense-organs. This is due to the longer latent-period of the circular muscles, and it is evident that this latent-period is a property of the *muscles, not* of the nerves. On the other hand, Bethe shows that Marey's refractory period during systole is a property of the *nerves,* not of the muscles.

T. Brailsford Robertson, 1905,[2] demonstrated that *contraction* may be abolished, and yet *conduction* of a peristaltic wave will take place at the

[1] Allgemeine Anatomie und Physiologie des Nervensystems.
[2] Trans. Roy. Soc. South Australia, vol. 29, p. 34.

same rate as before. Robertson carried out his experiments upon the intestine of a fly, and showed that if the intestine be placed in a decinormal solution of NaCl, peristaltic waves of contraction proceed down its entire length. If, now, any point near the middle of the length of the intestine be wetted with $CaCl_2$ or $BaCl_2$, the wave of contraction is observed to completely disappear on entering this region, but on reaching the other end of the affected area the wave emerges with its initial rate and vigor.

In *Cassiopea* the *conductivity* of the subumbrella tissue is *independent* of its *contractibility*. This is shown in figure 8, where a series of radial cuts extending part way in from the margin, or out from the center, oblige the pulsation-stimulus to travel inward and outward around the subumbrella. Then on stimulating the subumbrella by touching it with a crystal of KCl in each sector successively, the major wave is fully as likely to go inward toward the center of the subumbrella, where the tissue is relatively incapable of pulsating, as it is to go outward toward the margin, where the muscles are well-developed and the tissue contracts actively. Figure 8 represents the conditions actually observed in a disk with 16 sectors. It will be seen that the major initial wave went inward in 7 of the tests, outward in 7 other experiments, and in both directions in the case of 2 trials.

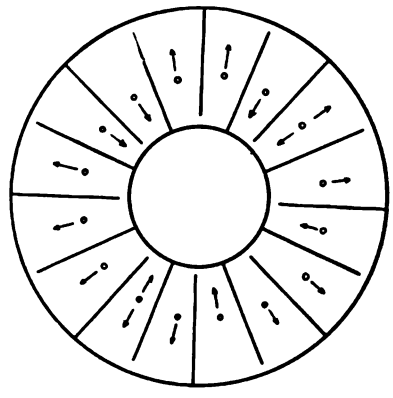

FIG. 8.—Showing the observed directions of pulsation-waves in a disk stimulated at various points in succession.

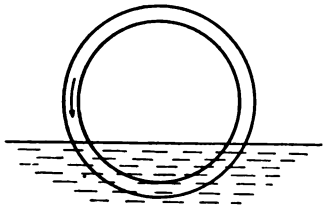

FIG. 9.—A pulsating ring of subumbrella tissue partially immersed in order to determine the effects of a dissolved salt upon the pulsation.

In so far as is known, all recurrently pulsating animal tissues contain or are surrounded by the elements Na, Ca, K, and Mg. Marine animals at Tortugas, Florida, live in a solution which is well represented by Van't Hoff's solution $\frac{5}{8}$m (100 $NaCl + 7.8$ $MgCl_2 + 3.8$ $MgSO_4 + 2.2$ $KCl + 3$ $CaCl_2$). On the other hand, the pulsating organs of terrestrial or fresh-water animals exist in the presence of the same salts, but in amounts and proportions other than those of the above formula.

We may readily test the influence of any solution upon pulsation in *Cassiopea* if we merely cut out a ring of subumbrella tissue, deprived of marginal sense-organs, set it into sustained rhythm, and then partially immerse the ring beneath the solution whose effects we wish to test (see figure 9). For example if the pulsating ring be partially immersed beneath

a pure 5/8mm $MgSO_4$ solution, the immersed portion of the ring gradually loses its *contractibility,* but it still *conducts* the pulsation-stimulus. After ten minutes' immersion the immersed portion of the ring can not be observed to contract, even if it be viewed under a microscope, but the *unimmersed* part still responds by normally vigorous contractions at each passage of the pulsation-stimulus; and it is evident that the pulsation-stimulus is transmitted through the non-contracting immersed part of the ring. Indeed, the pulsation-stimulus will usually continue to pass through the inert, immersed part of the ring for fully half an hour after all response to its presence has ceased. This experiment gives the same result if the ring be partially immersed beneath $MgSO_4$, $MgCl_2$, or $MgBr_2$. It is evident that magnesium chiefly affects the *muscles,* rendering them incapable of contracting and producing a state of inert relaxation. Magnesium has, however, less effect upon the pulsation-stimulus itself, which is *nervous* in nature. That it has *some* effect upon the nervous elements is, however, evident, for the immersed part of the ring, *after* losing its ability to contract, finally ceases even to *conduct* the pulsation-stimulus. Moreover, the rate at which the pulsation-wave travels around the ring always declines. For example, one ring partially immersed beneath 5/8m $MgSO_4$ slowly declined in rate from 67 to 57 per minute after 35 minutes immersion. In another case the rate declined from 93 to 78 per minute after 28 minutes' immersion, and in another from 88 to 40 in 31 minutes, etc.

Weaker solutions of magnesium, made by adding $MgSO_4$ or $MgCl_2$ to natural sea-water, may not cause any decline in rate, although they will destroy the contractibility of the muscles in the immersed part of the ring. The effect of these weaker solutions, such as 66.6 sea-water + 33.3 of 5/8m $MgSO_4$ is about wholly confined to rendering the *muscle* inert, and not to hindering the pulsation-stimulus, which is nervous in nature.

It is remarkable that the normal medusa, pulsating by means of stimuli set forth from its marginal sense-organs, can not pulsate for more than 20 seconds in a pure 5/8m $MgSO_4$ solution, whereas a ring-shaped strip of subumbrella tissue *without* marginal sense-organs can pulsate for at least ten minutes in the above solution. The marginal sense-organs can not send forth the pulsation-stimuli unless they be surrounded by calcium in solution, and one office of this calcium is to offset the anesthetic effects of the magnesium. Indeed, if magnesium be absent, calcium may *also* be absent, and the sense-organs will continue to send forth their pulsation-stimuli for a long time; but if magnesium be present, calcium must also be present if pulsation is to endure long. Calcium produces tetanus, as has been shown by Loeb; while magnesium produces muscular relaxation, as has been shown by Meltzer and Auer and by myself. In this sense calcium and magnesium are antagonistic in their effects and offset one the other. Both are necessary for maintaining that delicately balanced state which

permits of *recurrent* ("rhythmical") pulsation, for both magnesium and calcium are inhibitors of pulsation, and reduce the stimulating effect which the NaCl tends to exert.

We see that, in the absence of calcium, magnesium produces a profound relaxation of the muscles, rendering them incapable of pulsating. An exactly opposite effect is produced by the remaining elements Na + Ca + K. If a *Cassiopea* medusa be placed in a solution lacking magnesium, but containing sodium, potassium, and calcium chlorides, its pulsation is at first greatly increased both in amplitude and rate; but finally the rate and amplitude decline and become very slow and slight, while at the same time sustained tetanus sets in. This tetanus becomes so severe that after being 24 hours in the solution lacking magnesium the circular muscle fibers of the subumbrella are torn across, as is shown in figure 10, A; and soon thereafter the whole medusa-bell is drawn up into a crumpled mass, as is shown in figure 10, B. Under these conditions the medusa may give not more than 3 weak pulsations per minute, whereas its normal rate may have been been 80. The pulsations soon become so weak that they do not involve the entire margin, but spread only a little way on both sides of those organs which still initiate them. Even under these conditions, however, when death is imminent, the tetanus may be completely cured and normal pulsation restored by simply introducing any magnesium salt in the amount found in sea-water.

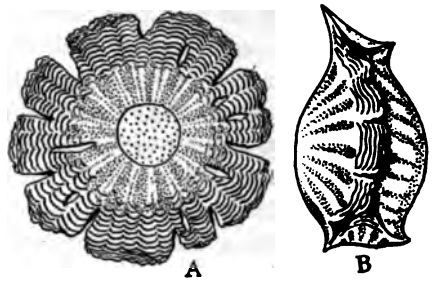

FIG. 10.—*A*, and *B*, successive stages of tetanus produced by a partial sea-water composed of NaCl + KCL + $CaCl_2$ but *lacking* magnesium. Upon adding magnesium, this tetanus was completely cured, and normal pulsation restored.

Tetanus and a final lowering of the rate of pulsation is also produced in the rhythmical movement of the branchial arms of *Lepas* by NaCl + KCl + $CaCl_2$; and in this case also the tetanus is cured and normal pulsation restored by magnesium. The tetanus is caused mainly by calcium, for it takes place in *Cassiopea* placed in sea-water + 3 per cent 5/8m $CaCl_2$, or in any solution *lacking* magnesium but containing calcium. Nevertheless, the tetanus is not due *solely* to calcium, for it is far more severe in medusæ subjected to NaCl + $CaCl_2$ + KCl than it is if we leave out the potassium, and place the medusa in NaCl + $CaCl_2$. However, calcium is the element *chiefly* responsible for the production of the tetanus, for no tetanus occurs in medusæ subjected to a solution of NaCl + KCl. The interesting fact remains true, however, that the most *severe* and constantly sustained tetanus is produced by a solution containing all three elements—sodium, calcium, and potassium.

A solution containing the amounts and proportions of NaCl + KCl but *lacking* magnesium and calcium is very toxic and medusæ can not live for more than two hours in it; yet if we merely add calcium this solution will sustain life for more than 24 hours.

Most important studies upon the beneficial effects of magnesium in overcoming the tetanus of lockjaw have been carried out by J. A. Blake, 1906, and by Meltzer and Auer, 1906.[1] These authors find that intraspinal injections of $MgSO_4$ in doses which do not affect the respiratory center, or other vital functions, are capable of abolishing, temporarily but for the time completely, all clonic convulsions and tonic contractions in cases of human tetanus, and experimental tetanus produced by tetanus toxin in monkeys. The palliative effects of the injections may last 24 hours or longer.

Dr. J. A. Blake, 1906,[2] gave five successive intraspinal injections of 4.5 to 8 c.c. of 25 to 12.5 per cent $MgSO_4$ to a boy suffering from tetanus. The injection was renewed whenever the relaxing effects of the previous dose disappeared, and a complete cure was effected in about 14 days.

Flexner and Noguchi, 1906,[3] find that the fatal constituent in tetanus toxin is the convulsive agent tetanospasmin, which has an especial affinity for nervous tissue; but that certain fluorescent aniline dyes, especially eosin, have the power to destroy the poisonous effects of this substance.

It would seem that the beneficial effects of magnesium in the case of human tetanus is due to its reducing the excitability of the nerves and muscles, and not to any direct effect in neutralizing the poison of the toxin. It would be important to know whether the tetanospasmin which produces the convulsive tetanus has the power to *precipitate* magnesium or to produce a relative increase of the soluble calcium, for my experiments indicate that it is the rôle of magnesium to offset and neutralize the effects of calcium. Loeb, 1906,[4] states that the margin of the medusa *Polyorchis* has a tendency to remain permanently contracted in a mixture of NaCl + KCl + $CaCl_2$, and this effect is due to the calcium. Loeb found, however, that upon the addition of $MgCl_2$ this tendency to a contracted condition lessened, and the medusa showed a more normal type of contraction.

I find that ⅝m (100 NaCl + $3CaCl_2$ + 2.2 KCl) is a powerful stimulant for *Cassiopea,* producing, at first, a very rapid, strong pulsation, and rendering the contractile tissue highly sensitive to all stimuli. The final effect of this solution is, however, to exhaust the tissue and produce sustained tetanus. This tetanus and exhaustion takes place even when the medusa is prevented from pulsating by removing its marginal sense-organs before it was placed in the NaCl + $CaCl_2$ + KCl. It appears that NaCl +

[1] See Meltzer, S. J., and Auer, John, 1906; Journal of Experimental Medicine, New York, vol. 8, p. 692–706. Also 1907; Reprints of Studies, Rockefeller Inst. Medical Research, New York, vol. 6, p. 692.

[2] Surgery, Gynecology and Obstetrics, vol. 5, p. 541.

[3] Journal of Experimental Medicine, vol. 8, p. 1.

[4] Dynamics of Living Matter, p. 91.

$CaCl_2$ + KCl is a stimulant for nerves and muscles, although not so powerful as a *pure* NaCl solution, and that magnesium is a relaxing, or anesthetic, agent, which renders the muscles incapable of contraction. Calcium-tetanus is muscular not nervous in nature.

We see that magnesium is as essential to recurrent ("rhythmical") pulsation as is sodium, potassium, or calcium, for it holds the tissue in check, and guards it against the too powerful stimulus and tetanus produced by NaCl + KCl + $CaCl_2$. It is thus a counterbalancing reagent.

The importance of magnesium in vital phenomena is at present underestimated, despite the researches of Tullberg, Meltzer and Auer, and others. For example, Loeb, 1906,[1] lays special stress upon the importance of Na, K, and Ca in maintaining pulsation, but regards magnesium as of minor importance.

It is true that a Ringer's solution, consisting of chlorides of sodium, potassium, and calcium, will maintain pulsation longer than will any combination of *any two* of these elements with magnesium, but if pulsation is to endure indefinitely the pulsating organ must contain or be surrounded by sodium, potassium, calcium, *and magnesium*. In this connection it is interesting to see that Burnett, 1907,[2] finds that strips of the ventricle of the turtle's heart will live as long in isotonic, diluted sea-water as in Ringer's solution; and indeed my own experiments upon the heart of the embryonic loggerhead turtle confirm this observation.

A pure NaCl solution produces *the most* rapid initial pulsation possible for the tissues to sustain, but in less than one hour the medusa is thoroughly exhausted, and all movement ceases. In NaCl + KCl, or in NaCl + $CaCl_2$, pulsation is *slower* but *endures longer*, and in NaCl + KCl + $CaCl_2$ + $MgSO_4$ + $MgCl_2$ in the amounts and proportions found in sea-water, pulsation is still slower, and is normal in all respects. It is evident that the NaCl of the sea-water is a powerful stimulant; and that the Mg, Ca, and K are inhibitors which restrain its affects.

We can prove that the NaCl of the sea-water is a powerful nervous and muscular stimulant. If, as in figure 11, we cut a strip of subumbrella tissue leaving a sense-organ (*s*) at the one end only, then lay this strip across three shallow glass dishes, *A*, *B*, and *C*; and place natural sea-water in the two end dishes, *A* and *C*, and a solution of 5/8m NaCl in the middle dish, *B*, the sense-organ in the dish *A* gives forth pulsation stimuli in a normal manner, but each pulsation-wave is greatly increased as it passes through the NaCl in *B*, and it still maintains some of this increased amplitude in the dish *C*, although here it passes through normal sea-water.

If, on the other hand, we placed pure solutions of Mg, Ca, or K, or any appreciable excess of these salts in sea-water, in the middle dish *B* the

[1] Dynamics of Living Matter, p. 95.
[2] Biological Bulletin, vol. 13, No. 4, p. 203–210.

pulsation-wave is decreased both in rate and amplitude as it passes through *B*, but this is effected by each of these elements in its own peculiar manner. For example, magnesium soon renders the muscles incapable of contraction, but only later does it exert an inhibiting effect upon the nerves. Calcium, on the contrary, chiefly affects the nerves, and stops pulsation very suddenly. At first the wave extends throughout the length of the strip immersed in the sea-water containing an excess of calcium, but soon it can penetrate

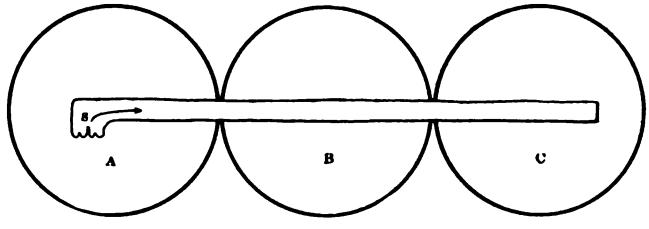

FIG. 11.—Test for nervous or muscular nature of effects of various salts of sea-water.

only part way through the calcium-affected portion of the strip, and the distance it can travel steadily decreases as time goes on until it is checked almost immediately after entering *B* from *A*. This gradual dying-out of the pulsation-stimulus is well seen in a strip immersed in 100 volumes of sea-water to which 40 volumes of a $\frac{5}{8}$m solution of $CaCl_2$ has been added. In this solution the tissue ceases to transmit the pulsation long before tetanus is produced, but a stronger solution of calcium quickly produces tetanus. This calcium-tetanus is purely muscular, and is not transmitted to portions of the strip other than those immersed in the calcium solution itself.

A similar experiment with an excess of *potassium* shows that the first effect of this salt is to stimulate pulsation, but its final effect is both inhibitory and toxic. Its toxic influence is prevented by calcium, and its effect in sea-water is simply to aid in the restraining of the stimulus due to sodium.

We can prove that of the depressants to pulsation in sea-water, the most powerful inhibitor is magnesium, while calcium is moderately and potassium only weakly depressant. This is shown (fig. 12) when we take a long strip of subumbrella tissue having a single sense-organ (*s*) in the middle of its length, and stretch the strip across five shallow glass dishes (*A–E*). If, then, we place natural sea-water in the middle dish *C*, and also in the two end-dishes *A* and *E*, we will be in a position to test the relative inhibiting powers of any two solutions placed in dishes *B* and *D*, respectively. In this manner we can show that a solution containing the amounts and proportions of $NaCl + Mg$ of the sea-water is a more powerful inhibitor, and stops the pulsation-stimulus sooner than solutions of $Na + K$, or $Na + Ca$. Moreover, a solution of $NaCl + CaCl_2$ stops pulsation sooner than a solution of $NaCl + KCl$, the amounts and proportions being in all cases those found in sea-water.

It is, then, evident that the relative powers of the inhibitors in sea-water are from strongest to weakest—magnesium, calcium, and potassium. Indeed, the stimulating effect of the sodium chloride in the sea-water is exactly offset by the subduing tendency of the magnesium, calcium, and potassium; and thus it is that the sea-water as a whole neither stimulates nor inhibits the pulsation of the jelly-fish. The sea-water is, indeed, a delicately

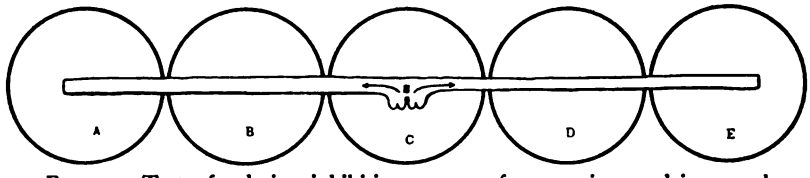

FIG. 12.—Test of relative inhibiting power of magnesium, calcium, and potassium of sea-water.

balanced fluid in all respects, for it contains poisons and antidotes which exactly counteract one the other.

The pulsation-stimulus is evidently not derived *directly* from the sea-water, but is engendered within the sense-organs of the bell-margin. Experiments show that the sense-organs can not maintain pulsation unless they be immersed in a fluid containing calcium in solution. Indeed they must constantly be *supplied* with calcium. On the other hand the pulsation-stimulus once it *leaves* the sense-organs and travels through the diffuse nervous network of the subumbrella is relatively *independent* of the amount of calcium in solution, for such a wave may endure for more than two hours if traveling through subumbrella tissue, whereas the sense-organs can not continue to send forth pulsation-stimuli for more than 6 to 10 minutes in a solution which lacks calcium, but contains all the other elements of sea-water.

We are now in a position to state that each pulsation is due to a nervous stimulus that originates somehow in the sense-organs. The question is how does it originate?

In all of the Scyphomedusæ the marginal sense-organs are little clubs, the hollow entodermal cores of which contain a terminal mass of concretionary crystals. It has been commonly supposed that these crystals are composed of calcium carbonate, but I find that they are actually *calcium oxalate* with a certain small proportion of urea and uric acid. In nitric and hydrochloric acids they dissolve slowly without evolution of gas, but in sulphuric acid they slowly give off bubbles of carbon dioxide. In short, they respond to all of the chemical tests for oxalates.

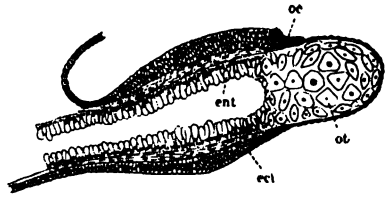

FIG. 13.—Median section of marginal sense-organ of *Cassiopea xamachana*. *ect.*, ectoderm; *ent.*, entoderm; *oc.*, ocellus; *ot.*, concretionary crystals.

Urea and uric acid are relatively passive in so far as pulsation is concerned, but the presence of crystals in the sense-organs containing calcium oxalate acquires a meaning when we recall the fact that the sense-organs can not maintain pulsation unless they be constantly *supplied* with soluble calcium from the sea-water.

We see at once that there must be some oxalate which is constantly forming in the sense-organs, and which is precipitating the soluble calcium chloride and sulphate derived from the sea-water to form the insoluble calcic oxalate crystals of the sense-club.

The question before us is, what oxalate is being formed in the sense-organs? We know that in certain tissues in the bodies of animals oxalic acid and other oxalates are formed apparently through the incomplete oxidation of carbo-hydrates. I find that 1 part by weight of oxalic acid in 1000 parts by weight of sea-water quickly paralyzes the sense-organs so completely that they do not recover the power of initiating pulsation even after they are returned to sea-water. So weak a solution of oxalic acid is, however, not a stimulant to the subumbrella tissue, nor is it appreciably poisonous to the medusa as a whole.

From 1 to 5 parts by weight of the oxalates of potassium and magnesium in 1000 parts of sea-water also inhibit pulsation after a short initial stimulation, and it can not be that these are the cause of pulsation in the sense-organs.

If, however, we immerse the sense-organs in a solution of from 1 to 5 parts by weight of sodium oxalate in 1000 parts by weight of sea-water, they are powerfully stimulated, and give forth pulsations at a rapid rate; but on the other hand this weak solution has no stimulating effect if applied to the subumbrella alone.

Now sodium oxalate precipitates the calcium which enters the sense-organ from the sea-water, forming calcium oxalate, and sets free sodium chloride, and sodium sulphate; both of which are powerful nervous and muscular stimulants. The formula for this reaction is as follows:

$$Na_2C_2O_4 + CaCl_2 = 2NaCl + CaC_2O_4,$$
$$Na_2C_2O_4 + CaSO_4 = Na_2SO_4 + CaC_2O_4.$$

It thus appears that each sense-organ normally maintains a certain slight excess of sodium over and above that found in the sea-water, and this acts as a stimulant which is prevented from becoming too concentrated by the fact that being in solution it is constantly passing out into the surrounding sea-water.

We can prove experimentally that this suffices to explain the phenomenon of pulsation, for if we simply add from 1 to 5 parts of sodium chloride to 1000 parts of sea-water, we find that this slight excess of salt acts as a powerful stimulant if applied to the sense-organs, but produces no pulsation if placed upon parts of the jelly-fish other than the sense-organs.

It is well known that Romanes, 1885,[1] demonstrated that the stimulus of a weak faradaic current of electricity applied to the subumbrella would cause Scyphomedusæ deprived of sense-organs to resume rhythmical pulsations.

The nervous stimulus which causes pulsation can not be produced at the extreme outer end of the sense-club where the calcic oxalate crystals are forming, for the calcium in solution must be relatively reduced at this place, and this would permit the magnesium to repress the stimulating effect of any slight excess of sodium. The free sodium salts must pass backward by osmosis to the nervous center near the base of the sense-club where the calcium is normal in concentration. We may prove this experimentally, for if we cut off the tip of the sense-club, removing the entire otolith mass, we may still stimulate the stump of the club into activity by a solution of one part by weight of sodium chloride in 1000 parts by weight of sea-water.

We are now in a position to state that the nervous stimulus which produces pulsation is caused by a slight excess of soluble sodium at the ganglionic center, but the chemistry of the change that takes place in the nerve itself while the pulsation-stimulus is passing through it remains undiscovered.

[1] International Scientific Series, vol. 49, New York. Also:—Philosophical Transactions Royal Soc., London, vols. 166, 167, 171.

VIII. NOTES ON MEDUSÆ OF THE WESTERN ATLANTIC

BY H. F. PERKINS

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Plates 1-4

NOTES ON MEDUSÆ OF THE WESTERN ATLANTIC.

By H. F. Perkins.

The Marine Biological Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington in the Dry Tortugas is admirably situated for the study of many of the lower marine animals, their behavior, and the conditions of life, and in none of the great groups are there better opportunities than in the Cœlenterates. In addition to the conditions ordinarily found in a region of coral reefs and coral islands, one quite unique feature occurs in the Tortugas in the presence of the old fortification and surrounding moat which occupy the entire surface of the islet known as Garden Key. This ruined structure, Fort Jefferson, dates back to the days of cast-iron cannon and vertical-walled forts of brick. The moat affords remarkably favorable conditions for the growth and multiplication of the lower forms of plants and animals, sheltered as it is from the violence of storms by the sea-wall, its shallow water warmed by the fierce rays of the sun and kept from stagnation by the agitation and partial change of the tides. Thus an unusual set of conditions obtains, and many of the minute forms which are daily swept in by the tide must find this an ideal place to grow and increase and become permanently established as part of the population of the moat.

Another fortunate circumstance is the ease with which cultures of eggs and larvæ may be maintained at the laboratory, the water in the culture-jars being cooler than that in the surrounding sea and considerably cooler than that in the moat. The distance of 4 miles separating the two islets occupied by the fort and by the laboratory is made less of a difficulty by the use of the laboratory launch, which makes it possible to transfer material from the moat to the aquaria at Loggerhead Key with little delay.

The writer has for several years been interested in the causes of migration and segregation of Medusæ. There are many instances of species such as *Gonionemus murbachii*, of Woods Hole, which have become established in some locality of very limited extent, and at a great distance from the nearest allied species. The circumstances which have caused first the distribution and then the segregation of the form offer fascinating fields for study and speculation. A particularly interesting phase of the problem is offered by the special adhesive organs which occur in several of the species which

have come under the observation of the writer, as in the case of the species mentioned above. In his attempt to gather data for this study the writer has been most generously aided by the Carnegie Institution of Washington, a debt which he acknowledges with gratitude. An appointment as research assistant in 1903 made it possible to collect and study the Medusæ of various points on the coast of New England, the somewhat voluminous notes upon which have not yet been published because so few of the many questions which arose could be satisfactorily answered by the work of a single year. During the summer of 1905 the hospitality of the same Institution, courteously extended through the director of the Tortugas Laboratory, made it possible to continue study upon some of the same questions in subtropical waters, and the following sections present the data accumulated at that time. It is a pleasure to acknowledge that the facilities liberally and wisely provided by the laboratory, and the stimulating interest and helpful suggestions of the director were of the utmost assistance in carrying out the research.

CLADONEMA MAYERI, New Species.

(Plates 1 and 2; Plate 4, figs. 21 and 22.)

I. THE MEDUSA STAGE.

CLADONEMA Dujardin, 1843. Ann. des Sci. Nat.
CORYNE Gosse, 1853. Naturalist's Rambles on the Devonshire Coast.

Generic characters.—Anthomedusæ of the family Cladonemidæ, having 8 to 10 stout inflexible marginal tentacles arising from an ocellated basal bulb. Tentacles bear terminally short prehensile processes, and usually also long, branching, filamentous, nettling processes. Bell deep hemispherical. Manubrium long as height of bell, ending in 4 to 6 oral tentacles or knobs beset with nematocysts. A circle of 4 to 6 gastric pouches located about half-way up the manubrium. Radial canals, 8 to 10, frequently arising in pairs from single canals at top of manubrium. All of small size (under 4 mm. in height of bell).

Cladonema mayeri, new species.[1]

Specific characters.—*Cladonema* with minute bell, 9 tentacles with both prehensile processes and branching terminal filament. Radial canals, 6 at origin, of which every other one bifurcates near the origin, making 9. Tentacles weighted with concretions of spherical or rounded shape produced and held within the endoderm cells of the larger part of the tentacle. Reddish-colored ocellus at the base of each tentacle. Manubrium with 6 gastric pouches and 6 oral knobs of nettling organs. Velum wide and strong.

Color lacking, except in the ocelli, which are reddish. Bell and ten-

[1] The species is named in honor of Doctor Alfred Goldsborough Mayer, Director of the Tortugas Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

tacles transparent, except for pattern of opaque white markings caused by parasitic protozoa.

Habitat.—Very limited; not found, so far as recorded, outside the moat of Fort Jefferson, Tortugas Islands, except, perhaps, in a single case. (A specimen of *Cladonema* was taken by Dr. C. O. Whitman in 1883 on the shoals near Fleming's Key, north of Key West, Florida. This was described by Fewkes,[1] and from the similarity between this specimen and our species in point of arrangement of canals it is not at all unlikely that it may be the same. The other points of anatomy are not so clear, and there are no figures.) Living in shallow water, close to the bottom, amongst tangled masses of filamentous algæ.

II. THE HYDROID STAGE.

CLADONEMA Hincks.[2] British Hydroid Zoophytes, 1868.
STAURIDIUM Dujardin. Ann. des Sci., 1843.

Generic characters.—Minute *Stauridium*-like hydroid arising from a creeping stolon attached to alga, stone, or other supporting substance. Invested by a perisarc. Hydranth club-shaped, tapering from above downward. Oral extremity rounded into a hypostome. Two series or verticils of tentacles, a capitate set at the oral end, four in number, forming a cross, thickly set with nematocysts; at a distance down the column a second verticil of four stiff, rod-like tentacles, set opposite the angles between the upper set.

Cladonema mayeri, new species.

Specific characters.—There does not appear to be any great difference between the various species of *Cladonema*, in the hydroid stage. Its constitution is so simple in comparison with that of the rather complicated medusa form that it is not surprising to find fewer points of contrast between representatives of different species. Like *Stauridium*, *Coryne*, and *Clavatella*, this genus offers a direct contrast to such hydrozoa as *Obelia*, in which it is hard to recognize any differences between gonosomes which develop upon trophosomes of very distinct character. The minute proportions of the hydroid under discussion, the absence of tactile hairs on the tips of

[1] Fewkes, J. W. 1883. On a few Medusæ from the Bermudas. Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool. Harv. Col., XI, p. 87.

[2] I am aware that the name *Stauridium* has the authority of older usage. In fact it was this name that was originally applied to the hydroid "nurse" of the free-swimming *Cladonema* found by Dujardin in his aquarium. It is unfortunate that it did not appeal to this astute naturalist as a convenient and permissible practice to call two stages in the development of the same animal by the same name. Had there not arisen confusion in the application of the name which Dujardin gave to his hydroid, to other similar but not identical forms, it might be best to continue to use two different names for the medusa stage and the hydroid stage of the animal in question. The old name has, however, been applied (Haeckel: System der Medusen) to hydroids whose progeny are not *Cladonema*, but *Sarsia*. It is certainly desirable to simplify our nomenclature to the utmost. I have thought that in this case it was by far the better plan to follow Hincks in his very logical decision in the matter.

the lower tentacles, and the location of the gonophores considerably above the latter, are points distinguishing the species from those described by other observers.

No specimens appeared in which there was any sign of a branching colonial stock, such as is described as an occasional form of the trophosome of *C. allmani*[1] and *C. dujardinii*.[2]

Habitat.—Not found thus far in any other locality than that given above for the medusa form, viz, the growing filamentous alga, abundant in the Fort Jefferson moat. Owing to its small bulk and unobtrusive appearance, it would be difficult to discover this hydroid upon any other than a very delicate foundation. It may be abundant upon stones and shells, etc., in the bottom of the moat, but it would be only by rearing the medusæ in aquaria containing nothing else that one would be likely to find it there.

III. GENERAL ACCOUNT OF THE MEDUSA STAGE OF CLADONEMA MAYERI.

The occurrence in the moat at Fort Jefferson of this species of *Cladonema*, or of any species of the genus for that matter, is certainly surprising. It would be difficult to find a part of the ocean more unlike the habitation one would select as that for which the structure of this creature seems to fit it. Here is a creature very unusually equipped for life in the open sea, capable of resisting ocean-currents, tides, and boisterous waves, provided with ballast and a whole battery of anchors against the assaults of tempests. It has established itself in cowardly fashion within the sheltering walls of a placid ditch, well out of harm's way.

The moat at Fort Jefferson, surrounding the hexagonal fortifications, is a relic of the ancient days of short-range artillery. It was constructed by throwing a substantial wall of masonry around the vertical face of the fort, founding it upon the natural bottom of coral rock. The moderate tides have access through the generous sluiceways, built large enough to permit the passage of small boats. Although shallow, the moat is never empty, nor is its bottom, which rises to within a few feet of the surface at low water, ever entirely uncovered, even in the shallowest parts. The water is warmed by the sun and by reflected heat from the shallow, sandy bottom and the brick walls of the fort. The temperature of the water is often high enough to make it feel decidedly warm to the hand when the air is well up in the eighties, Fahrenheit.

The ecology of the moat offers a most interesting problem. A number of species have become established here which never make their appearance in the waters outside the wall of the moat. The warmth and quietness of the water is partly the cause of this condition, but there is also to be taken into account the presence, because of that same warmth and protection from

[1] Allman, J. G., 1871. Monograph of Gymnoblastic Hydroids.
[2] Dujardin. Ann. des Sci. Nat., 1843, p. 370.

storms, of plant and animal life which encourages the growth and development of other species.

An interesting opportunity is offered by our species to see whether the concretions in the tentacles, increasing the weight of the organism, and the strong suctorial processes on the tentacles—as many as 25 to 30 in each individual—will disappear or become reduced as a result of their withdrawal from the rough weather they seem intended to combat. Observations extending over a series of years would be of value in determining this point. And yet, while apparently no longer a necessity as a protection against the elements, it is by no means certain that these peculiar modifications are not useful to the jelly-fish for other reasons. It seems not at all improbable, indeed, that the daily and normal activities of the medusa are to some extent dependent upon the heavy tentacles and bell-margin, and that the prehensile organs upon the tentacles are of much use in the feeding habits. The suctorial processes are very strong, much stronger than would seem at all necessary for the carrying out of the routine suggested, and evidently capable of far greater resisting power than that which is brought into requisition in the quiet life of the animal. How long is it likely that these organs will retain their strength or be kept in their present numbers, when there is no longer any tax upon their strength? It seems improbable that they will keep their present efficiency for long in the absence of such requirements.

Distribution of the genus.—The remarks in the last paragraph upon the possibility of degeneration of the suctorial powers of *Cladonema mayeri* apply with particular force to any representative of this genus. This is the case because of the evident tendency to variation amongst its members. Every writer upon the group calls attention to the large percentage of individuals having some other numerical arrangement of tentacles, radial canals, and parts of manubrium, than the typical one. In the species under consideration the irregularity did not seem to be so great as in the others which I have seen. Several counts showed a varying number of parts in about 20 per cent of the individuals. Instead of 9, there are present 8, 10, or 11 ultimate branches of the radial canals, and a like number of tentacles are present, or, in cases of normal numbers of tentacles and canals, the 6-parted manubrium may be varied into one possessing 5 or 7 parts. No single type of variation exceeded 8 per cent.

In view of this tendency to vary, it has been thought by some that it was a mistake to give specific or even lower rank to the different types. They should rather be regarded as nothing more distinct than varieties. I admit that it is possible that transitional types are in existence. It would be rather troublesome to apply breeding tests to the different types, and establish their identity or separateness by their sexual affinity or antagonism. The only course that is left open to us seems to be to decide whether the percentage of varying individuals out of any very large number is sufficient to

warrant us in holding such fortuitous variation responsible for the occurrence of large communities of the genus, in which so many individuals show a definite numerical arrangement. Perhaps that is a matter of opinion.

The first discovery of the genus, and the later study of it that has been carried on by several different observers, has had the peculiarity of depending upon aquarium material. Dujardin, in 1843, found the first medusa and later the hydroid in an aquarium stocked with material from the coast of France. The eggs of the genus must be capable of extended travels, judging by the great distances separating the localities where the hydroids have become established. It was doubtless in the egg stage, or possibly as a free planula larva, that the species was introduced into the aquarium where Dujardin discovered it. The other localities where representatives of the genus have been found are as follows: Brittany, Belgium, Messina in the Mediterranean, and the Bahama Islands. This latter habitat is so near the Tortugas that it might be expected that the two related species found in these neighboring localities would show closer similarity than two which occurred at a greater distance apart. Reference to the following table will show that this is not the case. The only point of agreement between the two, as regards numerical arrangement, is in the gastric pouches. Another point not indicated in the table is the difference between the tentacle processes of the two species. In the Bahama form,[1] the prehensile branches are developed at the expense of the floating nettling-threads, whereas in the species from the Tortugas these terminal filaments are the most conspicuous feature. The habitat of the species found in the Bahamas is in open, exposed shallows with sandy bottom. The long, floating filaments would increase the risk of the creature's being swept away by the waves. Their reduction must be an advantage.

Comparison of species of Cladonema.

Species.	Number of canals at margin.	Number of canals at top of bell.	Number of oral tentacles.	Number of gastric pouches.
C. gegenbauri Haeckel.	8	8 or 4 × 2	4	4
C. krohnii Haeckel.....	10	10 or 5 × 2	4	4
C. dujardinii Haeckel...	8	8 or 4 × 2	5	5
C. allmani Haeckel.....	10 or 5 × 2	10 or 5 × 2	5	5
C. perkinsii Mayer.....	8	8	5	6
C. mayeri sp. n.....	9	6 (3 & 3 × 2)	6	6

Discovery of C. mayeri.—The peculiar conditions of temperature, freedom from wave-action, and bottom-growth tempted me to investigate into the ecology of the Fort Jefferson moat. Inasmuch as I was particularly interested in the cœlenterate fauna, I worked at first with a fine-meshed tow-net. The first day this was tried some specimens of the medusa came into the net

[1] Perkins, 1902. Johns Hopkins University Circulars No. 21, Vol. xxi, No. 155.

and were found on examination of the washings. The towings were made just before sunset. The moat was visited next day, and careful search failed to bring to light any specimens. A mass of the filamentous alga was pulled up from the bottom and put into a separate jar. The water in the jar was soon observed to contain several of the minute medusæ, but great was my surprise to find, after returning to the laboratory and allowing the jar to stand for a short time, not a few individuals only, but nearly a hundred in various attitudes on the surface of the glass or amongst the weed. The exquisite appearance of the delicate creatures, their tentacles fully extended and interlacing at the tips, was most striking. Examined with a lens, the tiny bubble-like bell was seen to stand upright, sturdily braced upon the stocky pillars of the tentacles, which spread out at an angle with the perpendicular so as to give an absurdly stable foundation to this frail body. At the base of each tentacle a speck of color was displayed, the ocellus, red-brown in hue. Exquisitely slender threads extended out radially from the tips of the tentacles, each one branching into several similar threads, and all strung at intervals with glistening beads of nettling cells. These little organisms reminded one of nothing so much as the finest frost tracery.[1]

Swimming reactions.—And yet, this diaphanous delicacy of appearance is coupled with remarkable activity when the creature releases its hold upon its foundation and sets out to swim. It is only when disturbed, or when the light conditions effect a stimulus which is transmitted from the eye-spots to the nervous system of the medusa that the swimming reactions are to be observed. The most of the time the creature holds fast to its place in the weed, the long slender manubrium swaying about, apparently in search of food. The behavior of *Cladonema* suggests that of *Gonionemus* in many respects, and one of these is the habit of reacting to the light-stimulus, or to some impulse of a kindred nature, and going through a series of vigorous swimming reactions for a longer or shorter period in the morning and at dusk. It seems to require an extra effort on the part of *Cladonema* to break loose from its moorings and set out upon its periodic quest for food. The cause of this apparent inertia may possibly be the unusual heaviness of the apparently frail body.

When setting off, the jelly-fish makes one or two spasmodic attempts to pull itself away, then suddenly shoots off at a great rate, sometimes leaving behind a speck of tissue from one of the adhesive processes. The tentacles,

[1] The delicacy and vigorous activity of *Cladonema* are well portrayed by Van Beneden (1866, Rech. sur la Faune litt. de Belg.: Polypes): "Rien n'est gracieux comme un Cladonème nonchalamment étalé au milieu de son bassin, fuyant devant quelque danger imaginaire ou réel, ou solidement tapi par ses ventouses pour résister au courant, pendant qu'il étale soigneusement ses longs cirrhes dans toutes les directions. On peut rester des heures entières en contemplation devant ces organismes infimes, qui semblent moins solides qu'une bulle de savon, et qui se conservent cependent en dépit des vagues, des chocs et des tempêtes."

which while at rest were extended radially in a circle four or sometimes five times as wide as the bell, are shortened to half their extreme length. A succession of rapid, jerky contractions of the bell drives it forward for a short distance. It then settles slowly down until something solid is reached, when it either fastens itself for a short rest, or starts off at once on another voyage. The bell changes in shape by about one-fourth of its diameter at each contraction. The main part of the tentacles seem to be rather a hindrance than a help in locomotion. They are held stiffly out at less of an angle than when fixed to some solid object. With the slender terminal processes, they extend backward in the water and probably assist the swimming movements to the extent of steadying them somewhat.

In case the jelly-fish chanced to be hanging suspended by one or two tentacles from a bit of seaweed when the swimming commenced, it seemed to possess no means of knowing that it was not in the proper position. The course of the swimming was never seen to be changed from downward or sidewise to upward. From the horizontal position, as when resting upon the bottom, the dozen or so of impulses given to the bell before stopping usually sufficed to drive it upward to the surface, or near to it, in a fairly regular fashion, and with moderate directness. But the sidewise or downward course was much more erratic, the little creature bobbing first this way, then that, in tipsy style. The fact that the center of gravity is, as will be noted later, so low down on the bell is probably the occasion of this difficulty in maintaining a straight course when the bell is in any other position than the normal one, right side up. A number of counts were made to find the rate of the swimming contractions, and it was found that at the average temperature of the water in the moat during the summer the pulsations of the bell averaged a rate of 200 per minute, the activity being continued for only a few seconds. The jelly-fish appeared to become fatigued after from ten to twenty pulsations.

"Fishing" reactions.—As in the case of the famous fishing medusa of Woods Hole, *Gonionemus*, each period of active swimming is succeeded by a period of passive floating in the water, the outspread tentacles ready to seize any prey that might chance to come in the way. As soon as the pulsations cease, the tentacles stretch out into the water and are swept upward over the top of the bell by its downward course. At this time the position is similar to that shown by Allman[1] as the typical *resting* attitude of "*C. radiatum*" (now known as *C. allmani*). This "hands-up" posture is, I believe, never taken during periods of rest by the species under discussion.

Resting attitude.—*Cladonema* comes to rest margin down, instead of inverted as in the case of *Gonionemus*. The suctorial appendages apply themselves to the bottom the instant the medusa touches. There are from two to five of these on each of the nine tentacles, arising from the lower or axial surface of the tip end. These processes are smooth, devoid of nema-

[1] Allman. 1871. Monograph of the Gymnoblastic Hydroids, plate XVII, fig. 4.

tocysts, and terminated by a suctorial cushion of the type common to many of the Hydrozoa, having both muscular and glandular cells. At rest, the end is cupped slightly.

The arrangement of tentacle processes is not uniform in the several tentacles of any individual. Sometimes no two tentacles exhibit just the same plan in number and position of the two different kinds of appendages. In the case of the branches of the filamentous terminal process, they are seen to follow a generally alternate plan. This is only roughly followed, however. It is more noticeable in the first lateral processes that appear in the immature medusa than it is later in life. In some instances two or three processes grow out of the filament just at its junction with the main part of the tentacle, but ordinarily a little space intervenes. There are from three to eight of these branches on the average mature tentacle. In floating downward in the water, the slender branches reach out far enough to cover an area about three times the diameter of the bell, and as has been mentioned, a considerably wider field is covered when the jelly-fish is resting on the bottom. In this latter attitude, the filaments are held in such a position that they just clear the bottom. They are strung with minute clusters of nematocysts, with a slightly larger bead-like cluster at the end of each branch. The whole system forms a very beautiful and at the same time very efficient apparatus. Any luckless worm or copepod that happens to touch this spider-web is instantly treated to a vigorous nettling by the discharge of numbers of the nematocysts. Although these are small in size, they do their work in thoroughly efficacious fashion, the victim succumbing with hardly a struggle.

Feeding reactions.—After the discharge of the nettling cells there is no trouble in getting the prey to the mouth. The slender snares are instantly retracted, the entire tentacle shortens and curves towards the mouth, the bell-muscles contract spasmodically, the manubrium is set in eager motion, and the whole organism evinces the keenest interest in the prospect of a meal. Upon coming into contact with the spherical masses of stinging cells at the end of the manubrium, around the mouth, still further punishment is dealt out to the victim.

When one realizes that the warm waters of the moat are even more richly supplied with small creatures than the ordinarily teeming tropical seas in the neighborhood of coral shoals, it is easy to see that so well-equipped a fisherman as this should have no trouble in making a living. It is no wonder, then, that this species has become well established. Although the first individuals may have come into the locality within comparatively recent times, as we may conclude from the retention of the open-sea characters already mentioned, the genus being evidently a readily mutable one, such favorable conditions as have been described for the species might easily explain the presence of such very great numbers as were observed in the moat.

Specific gravity.—The reason for the apparent sluggishness of the medusa, mentioned above, is not far to seek. The tentacles are so laden with concretions that they must be a good deal of a burden to the small creature. The center of gravity is so far down on the bell and tentacles that a specimen, inverted in the water and released, will right itself at once. That this is not a muscular act is seen in experiments upon specimens which have been anesthetized. After treatment with menthol or chloretone the same power was exhibited. Examination of the tentacles shows the presence of large numbers of rounded concretions. These are packed tightly into the endodermal cells. Their composition has not been determined.

Experiments were made with a view to determining the specific gravity of the organism. Solutions of magnesium sulphate in sea-water were prepared, of various degrees of saturation. Inasmuch as no change in bulk, and consequently none in density, was effected by temporary immersion in this solution, it was concluded that the best way to determine the specific gravity of the medusa would be to find a solution in which it would be just suspended, without either sinking deeper or rising to the surface, and then determining the specific gravity of this solution. This was the method suggested by Dr. Mayer. It was found in this way that a solution, equal in density to the jelly-fish, weighed 106.4 grams per 100 c. cm. That is to say, the medusa, having the same density as the weighed solution, has a specific gravity of 1.064, or 3.9 per cent greater than that of sea-water. It seems likely that the extra weight of the creature makes up for the deficiency in the strength of the suctorial apparatus as compared with the corresponding parts in the species from the Bahamas.

IV. LIFE HISTORY.

After finding the medusa of *Cladonema* in the moat of Fort Jefferson, it was naturally a matter of interest to discover the other stages in the life-history, if possible. So far as I have been able to determine, the hydroid stage of the genus has never been reported from the open sea. The only cases in which it has been seen have been those in which the creature has made its appearance in captivity. The descriptions of these examples would seem to indicate that they were entirely normal in all respects. It is of interest, however, to find the hydroid growing in its natural environment.

Many trips were made from the laboratory on Loggerhead Key to the moat of the fort on Garden Key, 4 miles distant, and many hours were consumed in a fruitless search for the polyp. A microscopic examination of quantities of stones, sticks, and other débris from the bottom of the moat, and of the plants and animals that make it their abode, failed to show any sign of its existence. After some weeks had passed, however, the finding of another hydroid on the alga which grows in abundance on the bottom of the moat led to the discovery of the one I was more particularly anxious to

locate. I had not entertained any idea of finding a large and conspicuous hydroid, but the minute proportions of the creature when finally discovered surprised me. The polyp, growing singly, was so exceedingly delicate that it was almost invisible to the unaided eye. Only one specimen of the entire number that came to light, over a dozen in all, was large enough to be at all readily seen without a lens. This, though slender and transparent, measured 1.5 mm. in height. It is no wonder, then, that this form has not been a familiar sight to visitors in these waters!

During the time that the search was being carried on in the moat, careful watch was being kept over the medusæ which were brought into the laboratory every day. Only one individual was found in which the gonads showed any sign of activity. In this, a single spherical mass appeared upon the manubrium, above the gastric enlargements. This medusa was kept under frequent observation for some days, but the only perceptible change was an increase in the size of the egg, if such it was. The specimen disappeared, finally, without throwing any light upon the laying or development of the egg.

Filiform tentacles.—The absence of tactile hairs from the tips of the lower row of tentacles has been mentioned. The function of these processes, or " false tentacles," as Hincks[1] terms them, is problematical. It does not seem to be at all certain that they are intended to perform the function of tactile organs, inasmuch as their sensitiveness does not exceed that of the adjacent parts. Hincks says: " Their function seems to be to give notice of the presence of animalcules or other prey. If anything touches them, the head and upper arms are instantly bent towards it." I tried to find out whether this same reaction occurred in our species, and found that it did. But it did not make any difference whether the stimulus was applied to the tip end of the process, or to some other part of it, or to the column of the polyp nearby. It is likely that in the other species the tactile sense is more localized.

Feeding reactions.—The same eagerness in the presence of food which was noted in the medusa also characterizes the hydroid. The column of the polyp stands up stiffly and without any sign of life when there is no prey near. The capitate tentacles around the mouth droop a little at the tips, and the filiform tentacles below are straight and stiff. But let the smallest speck of an animalcule come along and touch the polyp, and it suddenly becomes flexibility itself. The column bends and twists, the oral tentacles reach after the prey, and even the slender tentacles below manifest signs of life. Plate 2, figure 7, is a drawing made to show the attitude of one of the polyps at the instant that a small worm, which had become partially fixed to the column by the nematocysts, made good its escape.

Reproduction.—I was unable to see that any definite gonophores were de-

[1] Hincks, *loc. cit.*, p. 64.

veloped. Several stages of budding were noted, but not more than one bud was found to occur at a time. The proliferation of the endoderm cells at a point above the lower set of tentacles was the first sign of budding, and this was soon followed by the protuberance of the ectoderm. The endoderm cells are small and rich in protoplasm, making a slightly opaque spot in the middle of the developing bud (plate 2, fig. 8). The nine tentacles make their appearance early, and their gradual lengthening, accompanied by internal changes, marks the subsequent growth. There are no points of especial interest in the history of the bud while attached to the parent stalk (see plate 2, figs. 9, 10, and 11). The youngest free medusæ that were seen bore no sign of their attachment to the hydroid nurse. They were about one-half the adult size, and had only one or two processes on each tentacle. The bell was more tall and slender than in the adult.

We have, then, the more important stages in the life-cycle of one of the two species of this remarkable genus which occur in the western hemisphere. For efficiency combined with delicacy it would be difficult to imagine a more successful work of nature.

CAMPANULARIA MACROTHECA,[1] New Species.

(Plate 3, figs. 12 and 13.)

Specific characters.—Minute, colorless, unbranched Campanularian hydroid, arising from a single creeping stolon. Stem short. Cup long and slender, vase-shaped, cylindrical, tapering at the point of attachment in a graceful curve. Hydrocaulus with seven rings just above stolon, and just below hydranth a second series of equal number. Margin of cup crenelated in six U-shaped indentations of moderate depth (plate 3, fig. 13).

Hydranth exceedingly slender, with 16 slender flexible tentacles, length, fully extended, somewhat greater than that of cup. Base of hydranth forms a slender flaring column within the hydrotheca. The manubrium is prominent, oval or pear-shaped. The stolon is filamentous, creeping on the stems of algæ. The gonotheca is elongate clavate, largest diameter at the free end, which is rounded. The attached end tapers gradually to the colony stem. The gonotheca is about twice as long as the hydrotheca, which it resembles in general shapeliness of outline. The annulations which are a characteristic marking of the stem in the hydranth are lacking in the case of the gonotheca, which is connected with the colony stem by a smoothly tapering branch. In some cases this slender connection was curved around the colony stem very much as some vine-leaves curve about the main stem at the base (see plate 3, fig. 12).

The blastostyle extends through the gonotheca as a slender column, flaring at the base to the wall of the cup, where it rests upon the circular shelf

[1] Derivation: From μακρος, long, and θηκη, case.

which is so characteristic of the genus, and flaring also at the distal end into a trumpet-shaped closure for the capsule.

Only two of the hydroids that were seen showed anything of value as to the reproductive process. In these, two medusa buds were developing upon the blastostyle within the gonotheca. Both were more than half-way out on the blastostyle, and behind the smaller, more proximally situated bud there was no sign of more progeny ready to begin growth.

The bud farther from the base of the capsule was about twice as far along in the matter of size and development as was the younger individual. It was my misfortune to be unable to find specimens in later stages of growth than that of the older bud represented in the figure. No free medusæ were taken in the tow-net, which was plied patiently in the waters of the moat, so that the specific characters of the mature jelly-fish can not be described at this time.

There were, in the specimens observed, four radial canals fully developed, each one ending in a large cushion of ectodermal tissue, evidently the basal enlargement, possibly sensory in function, which the tentacles of Campanularian medusæ always carry at the point of emergence from the bell-margin.

The nearly spherical shape of the medusa buds should be mentioned as a point in contrast with the very long buds which are found in the capsules of some of the Campanularidæ.

Comparison of characters of Campanularia macrotheca with those of other species nearly related to it.

Species.	Height.	Hydrotheca margin.	Annulations on hydranth stem.	Annulations on gonotheca stem.
	Inch.			
Campanularia raridentata[1]....	0.05	Serrated.....	4 distally ..... 5 or 6 proximally	None
Platypyxis cylindrica[2].....	0.125	Crenelated.....	2 or 3 distally....	2 or 3
Campanularia macrotheca.....	0.062	Crenelated.....	7 proximally..... 7 distally	None

Habitat.—The specimens here described were all found in the moat of Fort Jefferson, Tortugas Islands, Florida. The stolons were found creeping upon the same filamentous alga upon which the hydroids of *Cladonema* were growing.

The above species differ in the matter of habitat as well as in morphological characters. The habitat of *C. raridentata* is given by Hincks as "other zoophytes and on corallines, between tide marks." The two other species given in the table have the same habitat.

[1] Alder, J. A catalogue of the Zoophytes of Northumberland and Durham. Trans. Tynes. Nat. F. Club, 1857.

[2] Agassiz, A. 1862. Contrib. Nat. Hist. U. S.

AGLAURA CILIATA,[1] New Species.

(Plate 3, figs. 14–16.)

Specific characters.—*Aglaura* with bell, provided with a prominence at the top; gastric pouches at upper extremity of manubrium; four pendulous oral lappets bearing nettling organs and lined with strong cilia. Velum not strongly developed; tentacles, 24 in number, short and not vigorous; lithocysts, 8 in number, placed midway between the marginal endings of the radial canals. Four small masses of glandular tissue hang down from the walls of the manubrium, above the middle, into the lumen of that organ. Eight similar masses hang from the radial canals, one from each canal, into the space within the bell. Color, steely blue, uniform throughout.

Habitat.—Open sea around the Tortugas Islands, Florida. Taken in tow-net near ship-channel by Dr. W. K. Brooks, July, 1905. The specimens were amongst a quantity of material taken in the tow, and very kindly given to the writer for examination. This opportunity is taken to acknowledge my gratitude to Dr. Brooks for this and very many other favors. His helpful suggestions were keenly appreciated.

The occurrence of the peculiar knotted masses of tissue in the two different parts of this medusa, on the radial canals and within the manubrium, with every indication of being glandular rather than gonadial tissue, is of considerable interest. It would not be strange if either or both of these two groups of protuberances had sometimes been mistaken for gonads. Again, the slender pendulous pouches upon the manubrium have undoubtedly been called by that name. On the placing of these organs a distinction has been made between medusæ, which were therefore concluded to constitute separate genera. Thus, Haeckel[2] has separated *Aglaura* and *Agalma* partly on account of the presence of eight gonads in the latter, located on the radial canals. *Aglantha* is another genus which is distinguished principally on the basis of this character. The species under discussion partakes of the characters of both *Agalma* and *Aglantha*.

A comparison between the old species *Aglaura hemistoma* Péron[3] and *A. ciliata* shows that the differences group themselves as follows:

Aglaura hemostoma.—Height not greater than breadth. Lips not provided with nematocysts (?). Gastric pouches ("Geschlechtsorgane," Leukart;[4] "Tentakeln," Eydoux u. Souleyet[5]) not higher than the middle of manubrium. No glandular protuberances on radial canals or interior of manubrium.

Aglaura ciliata new species.—Bell not parallel-sided, higher than broad. More decided apical protuberance than in *A. hemistoma*. Lips strongly ciliated and set with clusters of nematocysts. Gastric pouches near the upper end of the manubrium. Glandular protuberances projecting from inner walls of manubrium, and pendant from radial canals, near their origin.

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[1] Derivation: *ciliatus*, having cilia. From the character of the inside of the manubrium.

[2] Haeckel, E. 1880. System.

[3] Péron. Annales du Museum, t. XIV.

[4] Leukart, Rud. 1856. Archiv für Naturgeschichte.

[5] Eydoux u. Souleyet. Voyage de la Bonite. Zool. Zoophyt., Pt. I.

In the above reference to the absence of nematocysts from the lips of the older species, it is purely negative evidence that governs. Nettling organs so large and conspicuous as those which stud the lips of the Tortugas species would hardly have been overlooked by the careful observers who have described the genus.

The species *peronii* of *Aglaura*,[1] established by Leukart, appears to be the same as that for which we already had the name ***hemistoma*** Péron.

It should not be inferred from the application of the name ***ciliata*** to this new species of *Aglaura* that the presence of cilia is peculiar to this one species of the genus. In the figures of *A.* ***hemistoma*** which accompany the descriptions by Leukart and Metschnikoff[2] the lips are represented as being lined with large and numerous cilia.

[1] Es ist dieselbe für die ich hier mit unterdruckung des ziemlich nichtssagenden Speciesnamens die obige Bezeichnung gewalt habe." Leukart, *loc. cit.*

[2] Metschnikoff, E. 1886. Arbeiten Zool. Inst., Wien, Bd. VI, Hf. II.

NOTE ON THE OCCURRENCE OF CASSIOPEA XAMACHANA AND POLYCLONIA FRONDOSA AT THE TORTUGAS.

(Plate 4, figs. 17–20.)

Amongst the various forms of plants and animals which find a convenient and salubrious abode in the warm storm-proof waters of the Fort Jefferson moat, none is more characteristic than the rhizostomous scyphozoan medusa *Cassiopea xamachana* Bigelow. The favorable conditions which Bigelow[1] found to prevail in the Salt Ponds of Jamaica must have been very much the same as those which are so marked in the sheltered moat in the Tortugas.

Besides the large bronzy-black ascidians that grow upon the rock walls of the moat at tide-mark, no creature is so conspicuous to the eye of the zoologist as the feathery brown disks that fairly carpet the floor of this place. When the surface of the water is unruffled, these jelly-fishes can be counted by the hundred as they lie on the warm sand or amongst the masses of algæ, the fluffy branches of the oral arms uppermost, the edge of the disk lazily fanning at the rate of a few strokes to the minute. "Moss cakes" the marines at the fort called the great creatures. Judging by both size and numbers, this species has here found an ideal breeding-ground.[2]

The medusæ vary in size through a wide range, and the extremes are as apt as not to be found resting side by side on the sand.

The largest examples measured 145 to 155 mm. in diameter, and there were very many of this size. The smallest specimens were less than 25 mm. in diameter, and they were characterized by less distinct markings, oral arms of smaller proportionate size, and greater activity of habit. The parts of the moat where the bottom was composed of clean sand, with only a fathom of water, seemed most favorable to the small individuals. In these younger cassiopeas the number of marginal sense-organs was from 13 to 15, while the largest and oldest ones possessed from 18 to 22.

Sexual multiplication.—Very little is known about the reproductive processes of the rhizostome medusæ. Bigelow, in his admirable monograph on this species, has given us a most entertaining as well as thorough account

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[1] Bigelow, R. P. 1900. Memoirs Boston Soc. Nat. Hist., vol. 5, No. 6. Anatomy and development of *Cassiopea xamachana*.

[2] The first record of the occurrence of this species in this locality is given by Fewkes, J. Walter, 1882: Notes on Acalephs from the Tortugas (Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool. IX, 7). While his determination of the specimens found at Fort Jefferson was as *Cassiopea frondosa*, his description and figures, and the occurrence of *C. xamachana* in the same locality, make it clear that Bigelow was justified in assuming that the species was in fact *C. xamachana*.

of the larval forms, their multiplication and metamorphosis, but he lacked material for a study of the development of the sexual organs in the adult, and the early larval phases. Indeed, strangely enough, there seems to be no certainty as to the sexual character of the creatures—whether they are hermaphrodite or have separate sexes. The latter condition is assumed to obtain by some writers on the genus.

In the hope of determining some of the main points in the sexual multiplication of *Cassiopea,* large numbers of medusæ were taken from the moat and transferred to aquaria and live-cars at the Carnegie Institution Laboratory on Loggerhead Key. As Dr. Mayer has beautifully demonstrated,[1] no more favorable material can be imagined for all sorts of laboratory observations and experimentation than this same *Cassiopea.* It lives remarkably well in small aquaria.

Parasitic(?) larvæ.—When the medusæ are left for only a short time in a jar, and then removed, the water is found to contain floating masses or clouds of mucus. Microscopic examination of this mucus shows multitudes of nematocysts, discharged or intact, singly or in small clusters, floating in it. Also included in this substance, or suspended in the water outside of it, there appeared great numbers of very small organisms which I, and others, took for embryos of the medusa. These small objects appeared in several shapes, suggesting successive stages in growth and metamorphosis, and it looked as if it should be an easy task to get the full series of phases in the development of the *Cassiopea* egg. After some days of careful watching it was necessary to conclude, in disappointment, that these creatures were the parasitic young of some other animal; that they were probably not even of cœlenterate origin.

These organisms were bilaterally symmetrical, not radial, having three lobes separated by clear-cut incisions at one end, the larger, and two at the other. They were clear, almost entirely transparent, and colorless in the earliest stages. With increasing size the number of lobes accessory to the first set increases, much as in the echinoderm larva, and there appear in the interior of the creature unicellular zoanthellæ, which give a yellow and later a brown cast to the organism.

The surface was granular in appearance, a condition which was due to the presence of innumerable minute spherical bodies, arranged in regular pattern, suggesting in a general way the follicle cells of ascidians. Around the margins of the rounded lobular projections, cilia in bands served to drive the larva through the water in a rotating motion. Comparison of these objects with the ovarian eggs of the medusa, together with a consideration of the surface appearance and the peculiar contour of the body, made it impossible to regard this organism as of cœlenterate affinities. Further

[1] Mayer, A. G. 1906. Carnegie Institution Publication, No. 47, Rhythmical Pulsation in Scyphomedusæ.

than that I was unable to go, and am still quite in the dark as to the nature of these curious bits of animal life.

Mucus masses.—The presence of these larval creatures in the mucus clouds excreted by *Cassiopea* gave rise to the notion that the reproductive organs must secrete this mucus, which was useful as a vehicle for the sperm-cells. It was afterwards seen, however, that the clouds of mucus originated not in the genital pouches but from the oral arms. They probably serve to entrap and hold minute animalcules and other prey for food, having the same origin and function as the similar product in corals.[1] These sluggish rhizostomes come nearer to the actinians in point of habit than do most of the cœlenterates, and it would not be surprising to find that both their food and their mode of capturing it were somewhat similar.

Failing in my attempt to get the larval stages by natural means, I tried artificial fertilization of the eggs, or rather I took the preliminary steps thereto. But I was unable to discover any sperm! All the medusæ that I examined proved to be females, and no organs but the ovaries appeared within the genital pouches. Over one hundred of the medusæ were opened in the laboratory, with the result that every individual was found to have ovarian eggs in the vermiform gonads, in all stages of maturation.

It was disappointing to fail of getting the larvæ of this interesting medusa, and that, too, without having any explanation to fall back upon. True, it did not seem to be the normal breeding-season, prolonged search having brought to light only a few larvæ in the scyphistoma stage, and only a single free ephyrula. But these few young stages indicated that there was some activity in the reproductive functions of the members of the species there in the moat. At the height of the breeding-season there would undoubtedly be no difficulty in finding many immature stages. Bigelow reports that at the time of his observations in Jamaica the stones and sticks in Salt Pond were thick with the scyphistomas. It certainly looks as if the creature were hermaphrodite, and the indications are that it is also protogynous.

Polyclonia frondosa Agassiz.

While collecting in the moat one morning early in July, 1905, my eye caught the sparkle of clear white spots upon the oral arms of a medusa on the sandy bottom. When it was brought to the surface, these white spots were found to be small scales about the size and shape of an apple seed, except that they were flatter, attached to the surface of the arm by the small pointed end. The fleshy yellow tentacle-like appendages, which are so characteristic in *Cassiopea* were entirely absent, and the scales seemed to take their place. The general color-tone of the medusa was noticeably different from that which prevails in *Cassiopea.* There was a more transparent appearance, with the brownish yellow turned to olive-brown, and the

[1] Duerden, J. E., 1904. The Coral Siderastrea radians and its Postlarval Development. Carnegie Institution of Washington. Publication 20, page 6, footnote.

white markings upon the surface were much fewer. These points of difference were so important that it was concluded that this specimen must represent a different genus of Scyphomedusæ. It was determined to be *Polyclonia frondosa.* Much time was spent in trying to find other specimens of the same form without avail.[1] The single individual found must have grown up in the moat from a larva brought in accidentally by the tide. The habit of these creatures is so excessively sedentary that it is inconceivable that the adult creature could have been carried thither by ocean currents. There may, of course, have been others in the same location, but the most painstaking search failed to reveal them, and this in spite of the fact that so large a part of the bottom is visible from a boat in clear weather.

Oral scales.—These noticeable flakes of white serve to distinguish the species at a glance from the evenly yellow hue of *Cassiopea.* Their presence, together with the absence of the digitate yellow appendages of *Cassiopea,* is sufficient, to my mind, to separate the genera from one another. The shape of these scales has been described. They are scattered over the arms, between forty and forty-five on each arm. They serve as little lids, guarding the openings into the oscula or oral funnels. They are sensitive to touch, contracting and bending away from anything that touches them. This reaction serves to bring the scale over the opening of the oral pores, preventing the ingress of the disturbing object. There is nothing in *Cassiopea* which shows so great a degree of sensitiveness as these oral scales in *Polyclonia.*

Oral arms.—Another point of difference was to be noted in the appearance of the oral surface of the two forms of Rhizostome, viz, the relative shortness of these processes in *Polyclonia.* In the individual examined the arms were not visible projecting beyond the disk, as in *Cassiopea.* Their length was a little less than the diameter of the disk. In *Cassiopea,* on the other hand, the oral arms project beyond the margin.

Surface of disk.—There is a conspicuous band or ring of darker color in *Cassiopea,* three-fourths of the distance from the center to the margin of the smooth surface of the disk. It is just outside of a circle of large oval white spots, which are more or less sharply separated from one another, and it is bounded outwardly by a clean-cut band of whitish hue, which extends to the margin. This ring is slightly raised above the rest of the surface, and when a jelly-fish is put into a glass jar it usually applies this part to the surface of the glass, the disk inside the ring and the margin being left free. The center of the disk is slightly concave, and acts, in this attitude, as a cupping organ. If one tries to remove the creature from its position, it will be found to require a vigorous pull to dislodge the disk from its hold upon the glass. The cells of the dark ring secrete mucus, which aids in giving a firm hold to the disk.

[1] Dr. Mayer reports the finding of six individuals of this species in the moat during July, 1907.

In *Polyclonia,* on the other hand, it is impossible for the disk to assume any such shape as that just described for the other genus. There is no raised ring, no concave center, no mucous tissue. The top of the disk is quite flat and smooth.

Color pattern of Polyclonia.—Instead of the circle of 12 to 20 rounded spots which mark the inner portion of the disk in *Cassiopea,* we find that in *Polyclonia* the dark coloration of the center extends in eight broad rays nearly to the margin, and the spaces between the rays are evenly yellowish in hue. Close to the edge of the disk are many oval or round white spots, of small size and regular arrangement, one large one opposite each of the sense-organs, smaller ones distributed between them. This part of the surface in *Cassiopea* is, as has been indicated, entirely free from color markings.

Marginal sculpturings.—Whereas the margin of the disk is smooth in the case of *Polyclonia,* a characteristic arrangement of radial grooves, extending various short distances in from the edge, is noticeable in the other form under consideration.

Marginal sense-organs.—The marginal sense-organs in the two genera show a difference in number. The specimen of *Polyclonia* which was examined, measuring 76 mm. in diameter, bore 12 sense-organs, while in an average specimen of *Cassiopea* of this same size the number is 18. Even in the smallest specimens, less than one-third as large as the example of *Polyclonia,* 13 was the smallest number noted, and very many counts were made.

CASSIOPEAS FROM DIFFERENT LOCALITIES.

The writer has had the privilege of examining specimens of this genus from Jamaica, and has studied the characteristics of the specimens found in the Bahama Islands and at the Tortugas. In the first and last-mentioned localities the conditions were much the same, but in the Bahamas there was much less protection afforded the waters in which the medusæ were found. There was less of peculiarity in all the surroundings, the temperature of the water, storm influence, and food supply being normal for the shores of coral islands. The only points of difference to be noted in the medusæ are with reference to size and color-pattern. The average size of the Bahama specimens taken at the same time in the summer was considerably smaller than in the case of the others, and, while the markings, described by Bigelow as caused by the presence of zoanthellæ in the cells, were of the same general character, the spots and bands were less sharply marked.

The appended table gives the main features of the two species, *Cassiopea xamachana* and *Polyclonia frondosa.*

Comparison of morphological characters of Cassiopea xamachana and Polyclonia frondosa.

Cassiopea xamachana.	*Polyclonia frondosa.*
Color: Yellowish-brown.	*Color:* Olive-brown.
Pattern: Concentric bands, light and dark. White spots near center. Margin white without spots.	*Pattern:* Dark center without spots. No bands. Margin with numerous distinct spots.
Shape of disk: Concave above, with raised circular band.	*Shape of disk:* Flat. No band.
Appendages of oral arms: Yellow digitate appendages. Not sensitive.	*Appendages of oral arms:* White scales guarding oral funnels. Irritable and contractile.
Oral arms: Projecting beyond margin of disk.	*Oral arms:* Shorter than diameter of disk.
Sense-organs: Not less than 13 in adult.	*Sense organs:* 12 in recently matured individual.

ZOOLOGICAL LABORATORY,
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EXPLANATION OF PLATES.

PLATE 1.

Cladonema mayeri sp. n.

1. Medusa of *Cladonema mayeri.* × 25.
2. *Cladonema mayeri.* Aboral view.

PLATE 2.

Cladonema mayeri sp. n.

3. Manubrium, much enlarged, showing gastric pouches, oral tentacles and bands of markings.
4. Top of bell. Dilations and branching of canals and pattern of white markings.
5. Top of abnormal bell, showing eleven canals arising from seven primaries.
6. Mouth and oral tentacles of medusa.
7. Hydroid stage of *C. mayeri,* showing two verticils of tentacles, lower set contracted.
8. Hydroid with tentacles fully extended. Bud in early stage of development upon column, showing granular endoderm.
9. Medusa-bud, further developed, with tentacles forming.
10. Medusa-bud with tentacles elongating. Oral view.
11. Medusa bud with tentacles developing. Oral view.

PLATE 3.

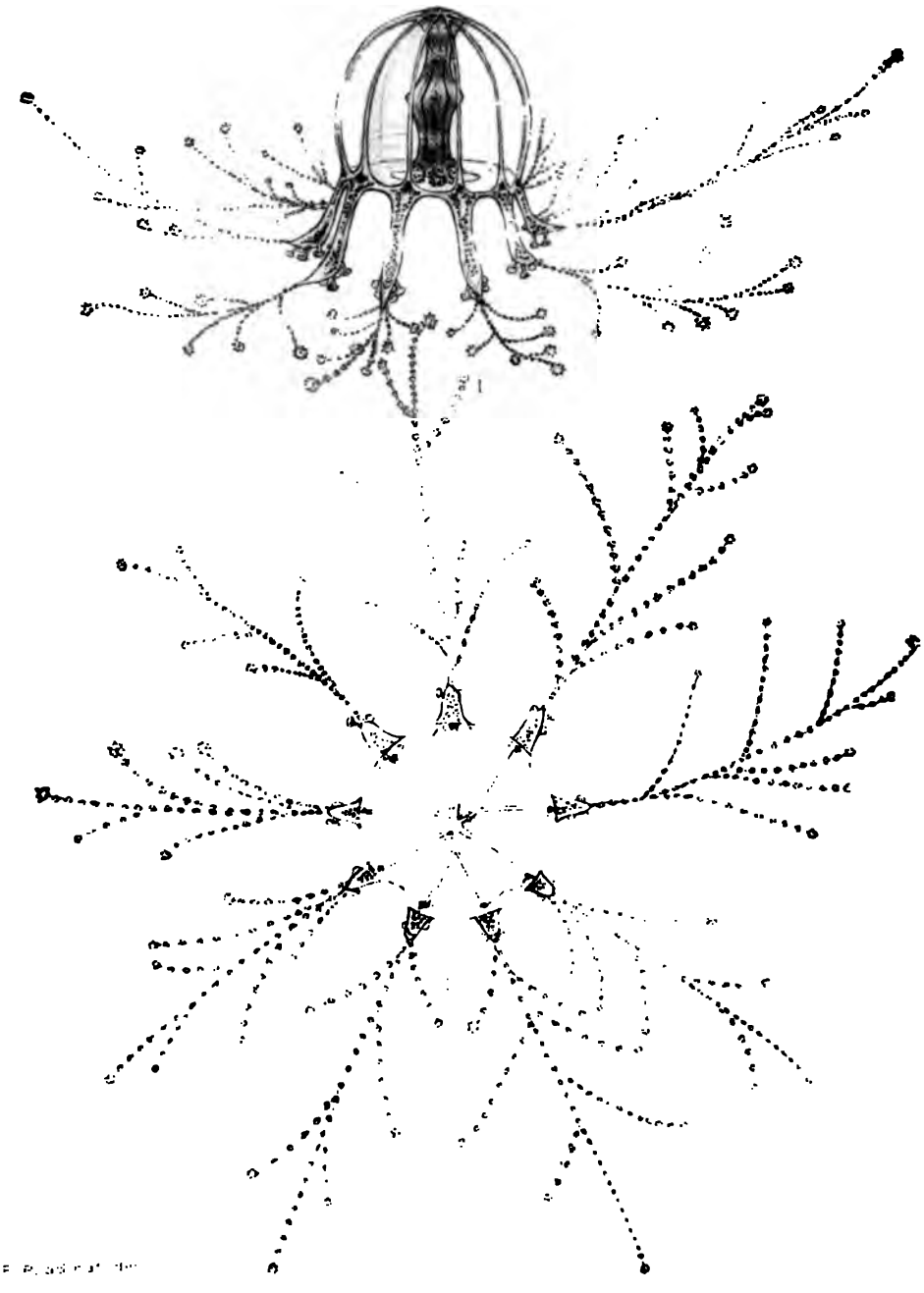
Campanularia and *Aglaura.*

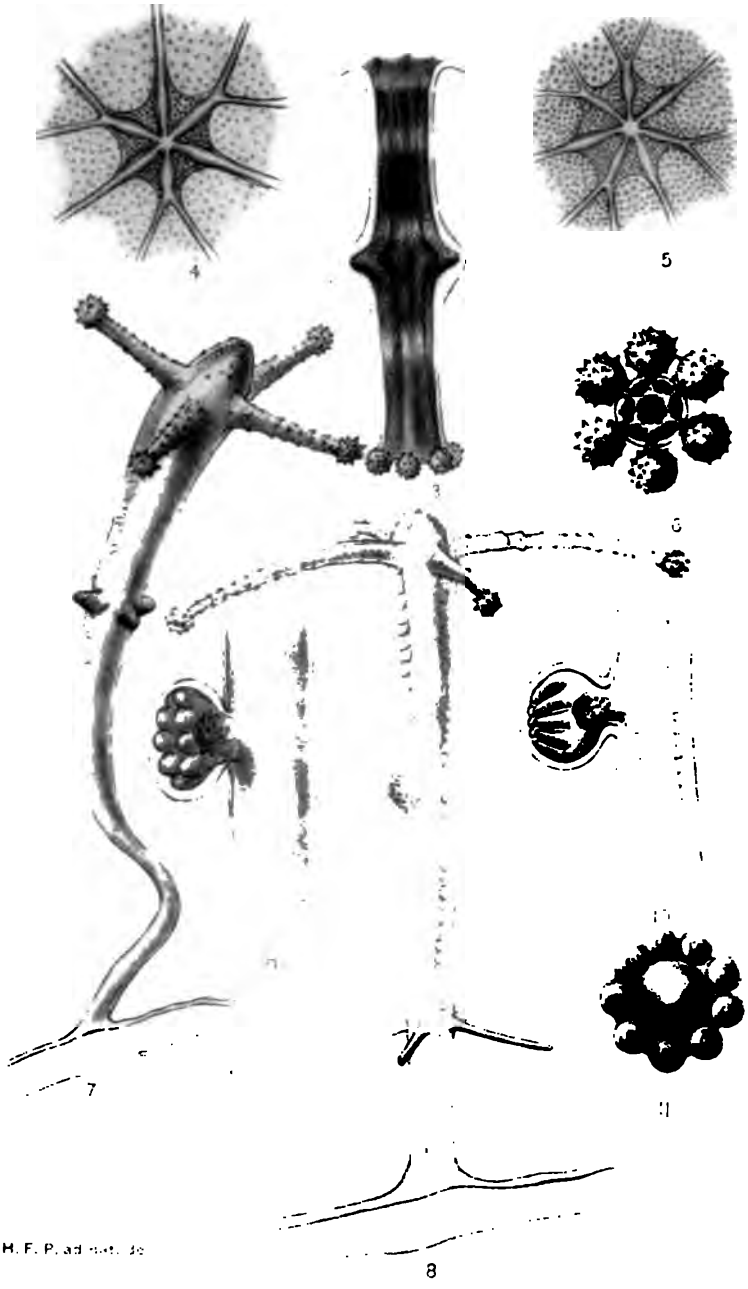
12. *Campanularia macrotheca,* new species. Stalk with nutritive and reproductive zooids. × 100.
13. Empty hydrotheca of *C. macrotheca.*
14. *Aglaura ciliata,* new species. Enlarged.
15. Oral lappet of *A. ciliata.*
16. Manubrium of *A. ciliata,* sectional view.

PLATE 4.

Cassiopea, Polyclonia, Cladonema.

17. *Polyclonia frondosa.*
18. *P. frondosa,* oral view.
19. *Cassiopea xamachana,* Bigelow.
20. *C. xamachana.* Oral view.
21. *Cladonema mayeri* sp. n. Side view. × 62. Photo. From life, by author.
22. *C. Mayeri.* Oral view. × 62. Photo. From life.





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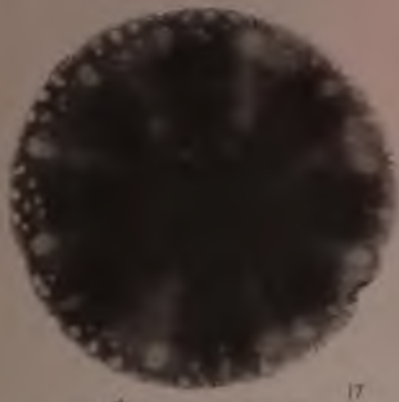

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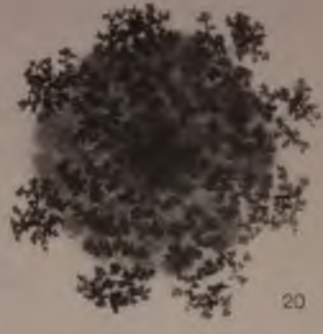

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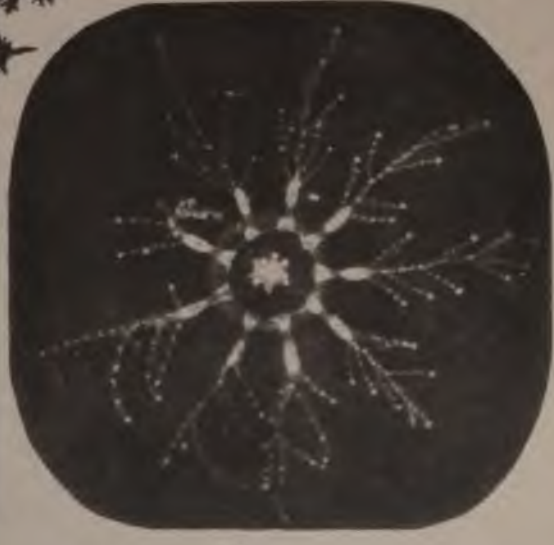

22

IX. HELMINTH FAUNA OF THE DRY TORTUGAS

By EDWIN LINTON
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I. CESTODES

Plates 1–11

HELMINTH FAUNA OF THE DRY TORTUGAS.

By Edwin Linton.

INTRODUCTION.

The material upon which the following report is based was collected at the Marine Biological Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, Tortugas, Florida, June 30 to July 18, 1906. A preliminary report was published in Year Book No. 5, of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, pp. 112–117.

This report, with a few emendations, follows:

REPORT ON ANIMAL PARASITES COLLECTED AT TORTUGAS, FLORIDA, JUNE 30 TO JULY 18, 1906.

In the table on pages 162, 163 will be found a list of the hosts which were examined for parasites, and a summary of the results of that examination, together with a few food notes. Where no food is recorded it is to be understood that either the alimentary canal was empty or the nature of its contents could not readily be identified.

While a more comprehensive search, extending over not only a greater range of species than is included in the accompanying list of hosts but also over a larger number of individuals under each species, is desirable, and would doubtless add very many species of parasites, enough, I think, may be learned from the table to warrant the following general remarks on the helminth fauna of the Tortugas.

I shall record also in this connection a few extracts from notes made at the time the material was collected.

Acanthocephala.—Representatives of this order appear to be rare at the Tortugas. The species found in the frigate mackerel was *Echinorhynchus pristis,* which seems to be eminently a southern form, since it was found to be the most frequently recurring species at Beaufort, while a closely related species has a similar distribution in the fishes of Bermuda.

Neither in the fishes of Beaufort, Bermuda, nor Tortugas have I found Echinorhynchi as abundant as in the fishes of northern waters. There thus appears to be the same contrast between tropical and northern forms shown in the distribution of the Echinorhynchi as in many other groups of organic forms. In this case, however, there does not appear to be a multiplication of species along with relative paucity of individuals, a condition which is characteristic of many tropical forms.

Nematodes.—But few nematodes were found. Those found in the nurse-

List of hosts examined for parasites in 1906, and summary of results.

Host.	No. of hosts examined.	Acantho-cephala.	Nematodes.	Cestoda.	Trematoda.	Ectozoa.	Food notes, etc.
Ginglymo-toma cirratum (nurse-shark).	3 large, 3 small, on five different dates.	.....	23, one species attached to wall of stomach.	8 species, represented by numerous to few individuals, in spiral valve.	.....	One leech on tongue.	Small specimens with fish, crustacea, and annelids in the stomach; large specimen empty, except spine of sea catfish and fragment of nemertean.
Galeocerdo tigrinus (tiger-shark).	1 (9 feet).....	.....	.....	3 sp., very numerous in spiral valve.	.....	.....	Stomach contained two tin cans, one bottle, one large shark hook with swivel, and numerous fragments of Palinurus.
Carcharhinus platyodon (cub-shark).	1 (10 feet)	.....	.....	5 sp., few in spiral valve.	.....	.....	Lenses of fish eyes in intestine.
Dasyatis say (southern sting-ray).	1 (18 in. broad)...	.....	.....	9 sp., few in spiral valve.	.....	2 isopods.....	Crabs in stomach.
Lycodontis moringa (spotted moray).	1 (2 feet).....	.....	.....	.....	1 sp., few in stomach.	.....	
Lycodontis funebris (black moray).	1 (4 feet).....	.....	1, in rectum	1 encysted on rectum.	3 sp., numerous in stomach and intestine.	.....	A spotted moray was ejected from the stomach. It had probably been swallowed after entering the trap.
Sphyræna barracuda (great barracuda).	3 large, 4 small...	.....	1 sp , immature, few.	.....	1 sp., few.....	.....	Fish in stomach of large specimens.
Clupanodon pseudo-hispanicus (Spanish sardine).	33 on two dates...	.....	Immature, very small, encapsuled, few.	1 encysted on viscera.	2 sp., few.....	2 copepods	Small annelids.
Tylosurus marinus (garfish).....	1 (18 in.)	.....	.....	.....	2.....	.....	Stomach empty, fish caught with fish bait.
Atherina laticeps (cabezote).....	33 on two dates ...	.....	.....	Larval forms encysted on viscera, few.	.....	Isopods, from mouth, few.	
Auxis thazard (frigate mackerel).	1.....	8.....	.....	Larvæ, few.....	2 sp , few.....	.....	
Epinephelus striatus (grouper)...	9 on five dates	.....	Few, immature ...	3 sp., larval and encysted.	2 sp., few..... ...	.....	Fish and crabs.
Mycteroperca venenosa (yellow-finned grouper).	1.....	....	2, encapsuled.....	Many cysts on viscera.	.....	2 isopods on gills.	Fish.
Mycteroperca bonaci (black grouper).	1.....	.....	Few, immature ...	4 sp., encysted and larval.	1 sp., numerous...	.....	

List of hosts examined for parasites in 1906, and summary of results.—Continued.

Host.	No. of hosts examined.	Acanthocephala.	Nematodes.	Cestoda.	Trematoda.	Ectozoa.	Food notes, etc.
Lutianus griseus (gray snapper).	41 on six dates	1	3 sp., few	2 sp., larval and encysted.	4 sp., numerous		Fish (Atherina), crabs, isopods, spines of sea-urchins.
Ocyurus chrysurus (yellow-tail).	3		Few, immature	Few larval	1		
Hæmulon macrostomum (striped grunt, "porgy").	2 on different dates.		3, immature		2 sp., few		Annelids.
Hæmulon plumieri (white grunt)	35 on six dates		Few, immature		8 sp., mostly represented by few individuals		Crustacea and annelids.
Hæmulon sciurus (yellow grunt)	1		1, immature				
Leiostomus xanthurus (spot)	6 on three dates		2 sp., one adult, few of each.		1		Fish and algæ.
Abudefduf saxatilis (cow-pilot)	1				1		
Lachnolaimus maximus (hog-fish).	1		1		1		Broken mollusk shells and fragments of crustacea.
Chlorichthys bifasciatus	1		2 fragments				
Pomacanthus arcuatus (black angel-fish).	1				4 sp., one very numerous.		The very long intestine was filled with material browsed from the reef, mainly sponges.
Angelichthys isabelita (angel-fish).	1				3 sp., few		Alimentary canal filled with sponges, etc.
Thalassochelys caretta (logger-head turtle).	1				2 sp., one of them represented by 1 specimen, the other by over 3,000.		
Shrimp—common, on gulf-weed	12 on three dates					Isopod, near Phryxus, found on most of the shrimp.	

shark, a species of *Ascaris,* were firmly attached to the stomach-wall, their heads penetrating at least as far as the muscular layer.

Representatives of the genus *Heterakis* were found sparingly in the green moray, gray snapper, spot, and hog-fish. Some of those from the gray snapper and one from the spot agree closely with *H. foveolata.*

A species of *Ichthyonema* was found on three different dates in the ovaries of the gray snapper; one was also found in the gar.

Immature nematodes were found, usually encysted on the viscera, in the following fishes: Barracuda, yellow-grunt, yellow-tail, grouper, cabezote, white grunt, striped grunt, black grouper, yellow-finned grouper. In all cases the number of these immature nematodes was few. The most common type was characterized by having an elongated basal bulb on the œsophagus and a diverticulum from the anterior end of the intestine.

One very singular form was found in *Chlorichthys bifasciatus,* which had a subglobular, chitinous pharynx which was marked with spiral ribs running from left to right anteriorly, thus crossing in optical section.

Cestodes.—The larval forms usually referred to by the name *Scolex polymorphus* are not so abundant as they would be in an equal list of northern fishes. Only a few were seen and only in the gray snapper, yellow-tail, grouper, and frigate mackerel.

Encysted stages, belonging for the most part to the genus *Rhynchobothrium* were found in eight of the species of fishes examined. *R. speciosum* was recognized in a number of instances. Encysted cestodes were found only on the viscera. No cases of flesh parasites comparable with that of the butter-fish (*Poronotus triacanthus*) of the northern coast, or of the hound-fish (*Tylosurus acus*) of Bermuda, were met. The selachians here as elsewhere are bearers of many species of adult cestodes, whose favorite place of lodgment is in the spiral valve.

I had the opportunity of examining but one sting-ray and that a small specimen. It yielded, however, a list of nine species of cestodes belonging to seven genera. This list is as follows: *Acanthobothrium brevissime* sp. nov., *Anthocephalum gracile, Phyllobothrium foliatum, Spongiobothrium variabile, Synbothrium filicolle,* two species of *Rhinebothrium* and two species of *Rhynchobothrium.* It may be inferred therefore that the sting-ray, if a sufficient number were to be examined, would yield as long a list of entozoa as it does at Beaufort or Woods Hole.

Some interest may attach to the fact that one lot of parasites is credited to the tiger-shark in the table, although the shark from which they were obtained was not identified.

On June 2, before my arrival at the laboratory, a 9-foot shark was captured. Its spiral valve was opened and placed in 5 per cent formaldehyde. Upon examining this material I decided that it had come from a tiger-shark. As this is an unusual method of identifying a fish it may be worth while to record my reasons for having confidence in this identification. In the first place, the valve itself is of the same type as that of the tiger-shark. This fact, however, does not exclude the cub-shark, which is common in these waters. In the second place, the varied contents of the stomach (see table) agree with what has been recorded for this species (U. S. Fish Commission Bulletin for 1899, pp. 270, 271, 425).

Again, there were a large number of both adult and young and free ripe joints of the singular cestode *Thysanocephalum crispum.* In all the tiger-sharks which I have examined in the Woods Hole region I have found

this parasite abundant and varying from young specimens a few millimeters in length to adults with ripe segments and measuring as much as a meter in length. There were also large numbers of ripe proglottides free in the chyle of the intestines. Furthermore, I have never seen this cestode in its adult stage, in any other host than the tiger-shark.

Since tiger-sharks are rather common in the waters about the Tortugas this vicarious identification is probably correct.

In like manner the finding of the cestode *Discocephalum pileatum* in the cub-shark, while not justifying a change in any record of habitat, at least calls in question the validity of a former identification.

This species was based on four specimens obtained from material brought to the laboratory of the United States Fish Commission at Woods Hole, Massachusetts, July 19, 1886, and taken from what was reported to me to be a dusky shark (*Carcharhinus obscurus*). The viscera only were brought to the laboratory.

No other entozoa were found associated with them. Twelve specimens were found on another occasion in a shark which was identified as a dusky. They were associated with a few examples of *Anthobothrium laciniatum* and *Orygmatobothrium angustum*. In all other specimens of dusky shark which I have examined at Woods Hole I have found numerous cestode parasites. As a rule there were several different species, usually represented by numerous examples, in each shark. The same conditions were found to prevail in the dusky sharks which I examined in 1901 and 1902 at Beaufort, North Carolina.

The third find of *D. pileatum* was made in 1903, when I collected seven specimens from a cub-shark (*C. platyodon*) in Bermuda. In that case also the worms were not associated with any other cestodes, and the heads, as in the first instance, were firmly attached to the walls of the intestine. These conditions were repeated very closely in the cub-shark which was examined at Tortugas. The single specimen of *D. pileatum* was firmly attached to the intestinal wall, the disk-like head being embedded in the submucosa. There were, however, associated with this specimen, five other minute cestodes, representing four species and as many genera. They were *Anthobothrium laciniatum, Phoreiobothrium lasium, Otobothrium crenacolle,* and another which was not identified at the time of collecting and concerning whose systematic position I am not yet certain.

Leaving the species *D. pileatum* out of the account, it will be observed that two of the above species, viz, *A. laciniatum* and *P. lasium,* have been found in the dusky shark, both at Woods Hole and at Beaufort, and one other (*O. crenacolle*) at the latter place. While there is thus established a close resemblance between the cestode parasites of the dusky and the cub-shark, the species *D. pileatum* must, at present, be regarded as a parasite of southern range and of rare occurrence in the dusky shark.

Trematodes.—Beyond the preliminary examination made at the time of collecting, and often of necessity hastily given, the collection has not been studied.

From notes made during the preliminary examination it would appear that there are about 33 species, many of which are new. Of these, all but nine could be referred to the old genus *Distomum*. Three species of *Gasterostomum* were noted. Appendiculate distomes were seen in but two instances, one in the green moray and the other in the Spanish sardine. Those from the moray were numerous and resembled the form which I have been

recording under the name *D. monticelii;* those from the sardine were few and agree with *D. appendiculatum.*

Many of the species are represented in the collection by but one or at most few specimens, and it may be advisable to refrain from giving them names until more material is secured.

A distome, probably represented by more than one species, found in most of the lots of gray snappers, grunts, and groupers, is unique in that the ova, as they lie in the folds of the uterus, present a wreath-like appearance, and each ovum has a long, slender filament, such as is common on the ova of monogenetic trematodes.

Trematodes were found in large numbers in only two instances, a black angel-fish, examined July 18, and a loggerhead turtle, examined July 1.

In general it may be said that the trematode fauna of Tortugas is rich in species.

Ectozoa.—Parasitic Isopods were found on the sting-ray, cabezote, yellow-finned grouper, and a small shrimp common in the gulf-weed.

Parasitic Copepods were found on only one fish, the Spanish sardine.

One leech,[1] colored vivid green and red-brown with blotches of white, was found on the tongue of a nurse-shark.

General Observations.—The groupers of the Tortugas, like those of Bermuda, especially the older specimens, are characterized by having more or less abundant cysts on the viscera and often in the walls of the stomach and intestine. These cysts are, as a rule, dark brown, often nearly black. The color is due to the abundant pigment which is deposited in the cyst. While these cysts are more often than otherwise due to cestodes, accumulations of pigment and degenerate connective tissue were also found associated with other entozoa, viz, nematodes and acanthocephala in Bermuda, and nematodes in Tortugas.

It is perhaps worthy of remark that the great barracuda, which is a very voracious and predatory fish, appears to harbor but few parasites, either as a final or intermediate host. This conclusion is warranted also from the results of the examination of 5 barracuda in Bermuda in 1903. The largest Tortugas specimen measured about 1.5 meters in length; the Bermuda specimens were about one-half that length.

It would be of interest to know whether the apparent immunity from parasites of the barracuda and other fish is correlated in any way with the digestive ferments.

I take advantage of the opportunity offered by the passage of the proof of this paper through my hands to add the following extract from the preliminary report on the results of my work at the Tortugas laboratory in the summer of 1907 (Year Book No. 6, p. 114).

No selachians were taken while I was at the laboratory this year. One small nurse-shark (*Ginglymostoma cirratum*) had been taken before my arrival, from which were obtained a few specimens of a species of *Ascaris,* not found last year. After I left the laboratory, Mr. Davenport Hooker collected from a cub-shark (*Carcharhinus lamia*) some cestodes, which I have since examined. As I have already made a report on the cestodes

[1] This has been identified for me by Dr. J. Percy Moore as *Pontobdella muricata,* a widely distributed parasite of selachians.

collected in 1906, I take this opportunity of recording the cestodes from this species of shark, which is not included in last year's list:

Crossobothrium angustum, or near it; 3 scoleces and a few fragments from the spiral valve.
Phoreiobothrium lasium, 15, from the spiral valve.
Otobothrium penetrans, 1 adult from stomach. This name was given to an immature form found in the flesh of the gar (*Tylosurus acus*) in Bermuda. This is therefore the first record of the adult of this species.

In the Year Book of the Carnegie Institution for 1906, page 116, I stated that the spiral valve of a shark which had been kept in formalin until my arrival at the laboratory belonged to a tiger-shark (*Galeocerdo tigrinus*). As the identification was a somewhat unusual one, being based in large part on the character of the stomach contents and the entozoa, I embrace this opportunity of confirming the identification. Having learned from Dr. Mayer that the jaws of the shark in question had been sent to the museum of Harvard University, I wrote to Professor Samuel Garman, who replies that the jaws are the jaws of *Galeocerdo tigrinus.*

In the present paper only the cestodes of the collection are described.

A more critical study of the material than was possible at the time of collecting reveals that the cestodes from the nurse-shark are, for the most part, new, as is the case also with a nematode from the same host, a species of the genus *Acanthocheilus,* which will be described in a subsequent paper.

It has been found necessary to establish a new genus, *Pedibothrium,* to accommodate certain cestodes found in the nurse-shark. This genus is represented by three distinct species.

The species of *Acanthobothrium,* which was recorded in my notes at the time of collecting as *A. paulum,* proves to be a new species. Several species of the genus *Rhynchobothrium* were found, very few of which could be referred to any known species.

It has long been recognized that the hooks on the proboscides of the Tetrarhynchidæ are indispensable in determining the species. This makes it extremely difficult to identify species in this family, since it is frequently impossible to get the specimens to unroll their proboscides. Even when the scoleces have been made transparent, so that the hooks in the inverted proboscides can be seen, it is usually not possible to make out their arrangement, and unless there is something characteristic in the outlines of the hooks, one must often remain uncertain about the species where the everted proboscides have not been seen.

Again, the appearance of a given proboscis at different levels may be very different. It follows that species which have been described and figured when only the basal portions of the proboscides were seen, may not be recognized when examples are seen for the first time with proboscides completely unrolled.

So far as my observation extends, there is little variation in the arrangement of the hooks in the individuals of a given species, although, at present,

I am inclined to allow considerable variation in the sizes of corresponding hooks in different individuals.

It is, perhaps, worthy of note that, while I have found the encysted stage of *R. speciosum* in several hosts, especially the groupers, both at Tortugas and Bermuda, I did not find the adult of this cestode at either place. The number of sharks examined was so small, however, that this apparent absence of adults is not significant.

The large number of cestodes in contrast with the small number of individuals is significant and agrees with the characteristics, in this particular. of tropic fauna in general.

The multiplication of species of the genus *Rhynchobothrium* is distasteful to the writer, but seems to be unavoidable, as will appear when the figures of characteristic hooks are consulted.

It is to be hoped that another season's collecting will result in the addition of sufficient material to permit of a study of the comparative anatomy of the proglottides. Reports on the trematodes, nematodes, and acanthocephala will be made as soon as the material can be studied.

It is a genuine pleasure to acknowledge in this place the unfailing courtesy and interest shown by the director of the laboratory, Dr. Alfred G. Mayer, as well as the assistance which was given so freely by my fellow-workers in the laboratory, in the way of supplying me with material for study. I am especially indebted to my friend, Dr. Ulric Dahlgren, for many valuable favors.

DESCRIPTION OF SPECIES.

1. Dibothrium sp.

(Plate 1, figs. 1 and 2.)

The only representative of this genus seen was a larval form, a few examples of which were found encysted on the viscera of *Atherina laticeps*, June 30.

The cysts were elongated and filled with yellowish granular plastic material, which surrounded the elongated larva. The parenchyma of the larva contained numerous calcareous bodies, which were relatively large, especially at the posterior end.

The following dimensions, in millimeters, are of the living specimen: Cyst, length 2.8; diameter, anterior 0.47, middle 0.70, posterior 0.35. Larva, length 2.60; diameter, anterior 0.32, middle 0.42, posterior 0.28; length of anterior part, head 0.30.

A specimen (fig. 2), which had been fixed over the flame, under pressure, and afterwards stained with hematoxylin and mounted in balsam, exhibits a peculiar glandular structure much like that noted in a *Rynchobothrium* from the sand-shark (Proceedings of the National Museum, vol. XIX, p. 797, plate 63, figs. 14, 15. See also Bull. U. S. Fish Com. for 1899,

p. 300, plate 42, fig. 100; Pintner, Sitzungsbr. der kaiserl. Akad. der Wissensch., Bd. CXII, p. 563, Taf. 1, fig. 1). In this specimen, which is about 3 mm. in length, these structures are not found in either the anterior fifth or the posterior sixth. Anteriorly they are very closely crowded together, posteriorly they are less crowded, and the pyriform shape and racemose clustering can be seen.

These larvæ probably represent the encysted stage of a cestode which is adult in the tern or some other fish-eating bird.

2. Anthobothrium laciniatum Linton.

Report Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries, 1887, pp. 754–759, plate III, figs. 10–13, and plate IV, figs. 1–3. Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., vol. XX, p. 439. Bull. U. S. F. C. for 1899, p. 411. Bull. Bureau of Fisheries, vol. XXIV, pp. 339, 343.

One example of this species was found in the spiral valve of a cub-shark (*Carcharhinus platyodon*), July 12.

Dimensions, in millimeters, of living specimen: Breadth of head 0.23; bothrium, variable, length, at rest, 0.35, breadth 0.23; neck, length 0.28, breadth 0.07; first segment, length 0.14, breadth 0.07. This specimen, mounted in balsam, has the following measurements: Length 3.5; distance to first laciniæ 0.25; length of first segment 0.11.

There are about eight laciniate segments. Behind these the segments become more and more crowded, the laciniæ become indistinguishable, and the segments are represented by transverse striæ about 0.014 mm. or less apart, and making the margins bluntly serrate. There is continuity, however, from the laciniate anterior segments through the compressed segments to the larger segments at the posterior end. Of these there are six, averaging about 0.16 mm. in length and 0.08 mm. in breadth. The greatest breadth of the strobile is in the region of compressed segments, where it is 0.26 mm. in breadth.

3. Rhinebothrium flexile Linton.

Report U. S. F. C., 1887, pp. 768–771, plate V, figs. 3–5. Bull. U. S. F. C., 1899, pp. 275, 433. Bull. Bureau of Fisheries, vol. XXIV, pp. 342, 347.

One specimen was found in the southern sting-ray (*Dasyatis say*), July 10, with numerous loculi, which appears to belong to this species. Unfortunately the specimen was lost before further notes were made on it.

4. Rhinebothrium sp.

(Plate 1, figs. 3 and 4.)

A few specimens found in the southern sting-ray (*Dasyatis say*), July 10, resemble a species found in this ray at Beaufort, North Carolina. A brief description was published in the Bulletin of the Bureau of Fisheries, vol. XXIV, p. 347, No. 5. The condition of this material is such that the bestowal of a specific name seems to be hardly justified.

The bothria are mounted on distinct cylindrical pedicels, and appear as if hinged in the middle. There are twelve loculi visible in a side view. There are therefore probably ten pairs of loculi with an odd loculus at each end, making 22 loculi on each bothrium. The neck is distinct from the body and in life had two small red pigment spots at the base. Pedicels and neck minutely spinose. Fine transverse lines occur very close behind the neck, preceding the first segments, which are very short. The succeeding segments increase in length until they are about as long as broad, then increase in length but decrease slightly in breadth. The last segment seen measured 0.35 mm. in length and 0.07 mm. in breadth. Another strobile was about the same breadth throughout.

Dimensions, in millimeters, of specimen mounted in balsam: Length 1.28; length of bothria 0.20; length of pedicel 0.11, diameter 0.05; length of neck 0.14; diameter of neck, anterior 0.05, base 0.07; breadth of body just behind neck 0.08; last segment, length 0.35, breadth 0.08.

5. Spongiobothrium variabile Linton.

Report U. S. F. C., 1886, pp. 462–464, plate II, figs. 13–16. Report U. S. F. C., 1887, pp. 778–780. Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., vol. XX, p. 442. Bull. U. S. F. C., 1899, pp. 275, 432. Bull. Bureau of Fisheries, vol. XXIV, p. 347.

Four specimens were found in the spiral valve of a sting-ray (*Dasyatis say*), July 10. The bothria of these specimens were in unusually fine condition, making possible the following note on their structure: The bothria of the living worm are very flexible and bear some resemblance to those of *Rhinebothrium*. They are without costæ, but are provided with numerous loculi along the margins. When they are placed in alcohol they assume the characteristic crumpled appearance of the type.

6. Phyllobothrium foliatum Linton.

Report U. S. F. C., 1887, pp. 787–794, plate VI, figs. 5–10. Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., vol. XX, p. 443. Bull. U. S. F. C., 1889, pp. 275, 433. Bull. Bureau of Fisheries, vol. XXIV, pp. 340, 347.

One strobile, with the scolex missing, was found in the spiral valve of the sting-ray (*Dasyatis say*), July 10.

7. Discocephalum pileatum Linton.

(Plate 1, fig. 8.)

Report U. S. F. C., 1887, pp. 781–787, plate X, figs. 1–7. Year Book of Carnegie Institution of Washington for 1906, p. 116.

One specimen was found in the spiral valve of the cub-shark (*Carcharhinus platyodon*), July 12.

The worm was very flat and thin and the muscular head was firmly embedded in the intestinal wall; color white, except the corrugated neck, which was olivaceous. The posterior segments contained ripe ova, which were of a faint greenish tint. On the morning of the 13th they were seen to

be segmenting. A few of the early segmentation stages are shown in fig. 8.

A few measurements, in millimeters, were made on the living worm with the following results: Length 178; diameter of head 4.5; greatest breadth of body 5, about the middle; last segment, length 2.5, breadth 2.25, with ripe ova, which were 0.035 and 0.032 in the two principal diameters.

8. Anthocephalum gracile Linton.

Report U. S. F. C., 1887, pp. 794–796, plate VII, figs. 1–2. Bull. U. S. F. C., 1899, pp. 275–411. Bull. Bureau of Fisheries, vol. XXIV, p. 347.

Twelve specimens were found in the spiral valve of the sting-ray (*Dasyatis say*), July 10.

The following measurements, in millimeters, were taken from a specimen mounted in balsam: Length 6; diameter of head 0.040; breadth of body just behind head 0.11; last segment, length 1.49, breadth 0.11. Strobile linear.

9. Undetermined Cestode.

(Plate 1, figs. 5, 6, 7.)

One immature strobile from the spiral valve of the cub-shark (*Carcharhinus platydon*), July 12, probably belongs to a new genus. It was nearly dark when this specimen was collected, and it was not in good enough condition to risk keeping it in sea-water over night. The appearance of the living worm was that of having a lappet at the posterior end of each bothrium. In the preserved and mounted specimen this proves to be a loculus produced by a transverse costa near the posterior end of the bothrium. Each bothrium is also provided with a single auxiliary acetabulum at the anterior end. There are no hooks on the bothria. So far as I know, there is no genus of cestodes in which the bothria are without hooks and at the same time possess auxiliary acetabula and costa.

The strobile is filiform, with ten segments, all of which are singularly long and slender. The neck is also long and slender, and both neck and segments are finely serrate. The reproductive apertures are marginal and are situated at about the posterior third. The last segment is attenuate at the posterior end.

Dimensions, in millimeters, of the living worm: Length 15; breadth of head (variable) 0.4; bothrium (variable), length 0.29, breadth 0.19; distance to first segment 5.8; first segment, length 0.35, breadth 0.12; last segment, length 1.40, breadth 0.15. In balsam the diameter of the head is 0.40, while that of the neck near the head is 0.08.

PEDIBOTHRIUM[1] gen. nov.

Body tenuiform, articulate, head separated from the body by a distinct neck, and provided with four distinct, cruciform, armed bothria, without auxiliary suckers, costæ or loculi.

[1] πέδιος = even, *i. e.*, without costa.

Each bothrium is strengthened by a strong muscular ring, with a thin, more or less leaf-like border, and is armed at the anterior end with a pair of compound hooks. Each hook consists of two unequal prongs, which rise from a flattened base. This basal part of the hook has a characteristic shape in each species. The neck is traversed by conspicuous bundles of longitudinal muscle fibers.

This genus is separated from the genus *Acanthobothrium* by the absence of costæ, and from *Phoreiobothrium* by the character of the hooks, which have two instead of three prongs, and further by the absence of loculi on the bothria.

The species *P. globicephalum* suggests in its general habit of body the genus *Onchobothrium*, but there are no costæ on the bothria, as in that genus.

It is worthy of note that the hooks of *P. globicephalum* closely resemble those figured by some authors, *e. g.*, Zschokke, for *Onchobothrium uncinatum*.

Diesing's genus *Cylindrophorus*, based on Wagener's *Tetrabothrium* sp., is suggested as being possibly near this, but the character of a tubular bothrium, as that must be understood from Wagener's figures, indicates an essentially different structure from that shown by this genus.

In like manner Diesing's genus *Prosthecobothrium* (*Bothrium cornutus* Duj., *Onch. coronatus* Duj., *Acanthobothrium*, Dujardin, van Beneden, etc.), while resembling it in the absence of costæ and in the presence of forked hooks on each bothrium, differs in having a foliaceous appendage on the posterior end of each bothrium.

10. Pedibothrium globicephalum gen. et sp. nov.

(Plate 2, figs. 9–16.)

Head, especially in preserved specimens, globular. Bothria ovate, projecting in front of hooks, and supplied with prominent marginal border; each armed with a pair of small two-pronged hooks. The prongs are only moderately curved and are of unequal size, the inner one being the shorter. The common base is somewhat elongated. The neck is distinct, but the first segments begin as faint transverse lines at a distance from the head equal to three or more times its length. Strong muscular bundles lie in the neck near the head.

The first segments are broader than long, then squarish, then longer than broad, with rounded angles. Ripe segments much longer than broad, in some cases slightly narrowed at the extremities, especially the anterior. Genital cloaca on lateral margin, a little behind the middle, vagina in front of the cirrus, at first at right angles to the axis of the segment, then parallel with it to the paired ovaries near the posterior end of the segment.

The vitelline glands form a marginal border throughout, except at the extremities. As a rule they extend but a short way back of the ovaries.

One free segment was noticed, which appeared to belong to this species, in which there was a slight elongation of the postovarian region, as in *P. brevispine.*

The uterus is spacious and lies between the ovary and the angle of the vagina. The ova are amber color, thin-shelled, mostly collapsed, and consequently difficult to measure. The cirrus is long, slender, enlarged at the base, with exceedingly minute spines, if any. Testes numerous, occupying the middle space in front of the vagina. Cirrus pouch behind vagina and in its angle, but most of the coils of the vas deferens are in front of the vagina. Length in life as much as 60 mm.

Dimensions of a mounted specimen in millimeters: Length 30; head (compressed), length 0.96, breadth 0.96; bothrium, length 0.80, breadth 0.40; breadth of neck 0.56; distance to first segment, about 1.6; first distinct segment, length 0.04, breadth 0.6; mature segments, or maturing segments, length 0.80; breadth 0.40; free segments with ripe ova, length 1.8, breadth 0.6; length of hooks 0.035; ova about 0.025 and 0.018 in the two principal diameters.

This species was found on three occasions in the spiral valve of the nurse-shark (*Ginglimostoma cirratum*).

July 6, sixteen, in middle of spiral valve and a little below the middle, longest about 60 millimeters.

July 15, two, small. The hooks agree with those collected on the 6th, but the worms are much smaller. Length 16 millimeters.

July 18, three, smallest 30 millimeters in length, longest 35. Hooks very small, almost obsolete.

11. Pedibothrium longispine gen. et sp. nov.

(Plate 3, figs. 17, 18, 19.)

Bothria in life elongate, with crenulate borders in fresh specimens, flexible, often reflected; at rest and in alcoholic specimens usually longer than broad, projecting but little in front of hooks, but in life probably capable of being protruded so as to make a small cup. Free margin outside of muscular ring narrower than in the other species. Hooks relatively long, in some cases equal to half the length of a bothrium. The two hooks on each bothrium have their bases apposed and projecting forward to the anterior end of the bothrium. The two prongs on each hook are long as compared with the oblong base and are strongly recurved; the outer prong is about twice the size of the inner, and both are curved in the same manner, so that the two would lie in the same curved surface and be nearly parallel. The character of the hooks may be best understood from the figures. The neck exhibits various contraction stages in life, but at rest appears to be slightly larger than the succeeding part of the strobile. In the mounted specimens it was seen to be minutely spinose and distinct from the body,

with strong longitudinal muscle bundles of relatively coarse strands. Strobile, so far as certainly seen, filiform. First distinct segments about as long as broad, nearly circular, so that the first five, in one specimen, made a moniliform portion of the strobile; succeeding segments rod-shape, very much longer than broad, and rather loosely attached, margins finely crenate. Details of the anatomy were not certainly made out for ripe segments, but are probably much like those of *P. brevispine*. The two species may be distinguished from each other by means of the hooks, which present quite marked differences besides that of size.

From the nurse-shark (*Gingliostoma cirratum*), July 2, two; July 5, six. All small, with no mature segments.

Dimensions of living specimen in millimeters: Head, length 0.35, breadth 0.35; bothria, length 0.35, breadth 0.21; length of hooks, base not included, larger 0.06, smaller 0.03; diameter of neck 0.09; distance to first distinct segment 0.42; first segment, length 0.07, breadth 0.07; number of segments 9; last segment, length 0.63, breadth 0.06. In two mounted specimens the length of the bothrium in each was 0.35, and the hooks, including the base, 0.15.

12. Pedibothrium brevispine gen. et sp. nov.

(Plate 3, figs. 20–22; plate 4, figs. 23–25.)

Bothria much as in *P. longispine*, except that, in the alcoholic specimens at least, they project farther in front of the hooks, and the free margins of the bothria are perhaps wider. The hooks are much smaller than those of *P. longispine*, and the prongs are unequal and unequally curved. The outer prong of each pair is curved much as in that species, but the inner prong is nearly straight and abruptly enlarged at the base. The common base of the two prongs of a hook is irregularly triangular. Neck distinct, with very conspicuous muscle bands, and is minutely spinose.

There appears to be a considerable variety in the strobiles, some being short, with relatively few segments, others longer, with many immature segments. In the longer strobiles the last segments are no farther advanced in the development of the reproductive organs than those on the shorter strobiles.

The first segments broader than long, and, especially in the shorter type of strobile, have a tendency to become moniliform. Later they are much elongated, becoming six or more times as long as broad. The free segments are long-fusiform, eight or more times as long as broad, the posterior end being the more slender. The vagina and cirrus have their common aperture on the margin a little behind the middle. The vagina opens in front of the cirrus, proceeds almost at right angles to the long axis of the segment to the median line, then turns almost at right angles and passes near the median line to the ovaries. The ovaries are paired and lobed organs and lie nearly half-way between the reproductive cloaca and the posterior end. The vitel-

laria form a narrow band near the margin, and extend from near the anterior end quite to the posterior end.

Behind the ovaries the segment usually narrows and the only reproductive organs there represented are the vitellaria.

The uterus lies in the median region between the ovaries and the angle of the vagina. The ova are elliptical, amber-colored, with rather thin shells, and are about 0.023 by 0.013 mm. in the two principal diameters.

The cirrus is long and slender and is armed with exceedingly minute spines. The cirrus pouch lies in the angle of the vagina, but the vas deferens, for the most part, lies in front of the vagina.

The testes occupy the median portion of the segment in front of the reproductive aperture nearly to the anterior end, and are bordered by the marginally placed vitellaria.

The extreme anterior end of the proglottis is sometimes rounded and slightly constricted. There is always a short anterior portion which contains no genitalia.

Dimensions of living worm in millimeters: Length 5 to 10; head, length 0.28, breadth 0.28; diameter of neck 0.11; length of hook 0.064. In a specimen mounted in balsam the length of a bothrium was 0.26, its hooks 0.10; another, bothrium 0.26, hook 0.07. The base of the hook is here included.

From the nurse-shark (*Ginglimostoma cirratum*), July 15, numerous; July 18, several.

13. Acanthobothrium brevissime sp. nov.

(Plates 4, figs. 26–29.)

This specific name is used to accommodate a few very minute cestodes collected from the spiral valve of the sting-ray (*Dasyatis say*), July 10.

Bothria with characters of the genus, that is, with two transverse costæ, a pair of two-pronged hooks, and a triangular cushion in front of the hooks. The first segment begins at once, without being preceded by any noticeable transverse lines or divisions of any kind, and the following segment is adult, with a well-developed cirrus pouch and relatively large testes.

In the specimen which was sketched (fig. 26), the enlargement which is shown at the base of the neck is evidently due to contraction. Since this part contains the rudiments of reproductive organs, it is to be regarded as the first segment.

Dimensions of specimens mounted in balsam, in millimeters: Length 1.40; head, length 0.20, breadth 0.11; diameter of neck 0.04; length of neck, from the head to the point where it merges into the body, 0.42; length of last, and, in this specimen, the only segment, 0.60; breadth, anterior 0.11, middle 0.12, posterior 0.07; hooks, all more or less broken, about 0.05. The cirrus pouch is at about the middle of the length.

As these worms were thought at the time of collecting to be small examples of *A. paulem*, few notes were made of the living worms, and the

mounted material does not show as many details of structure as could be desired.

14. Phoreiobothrium lasium Linton.

Report U. S. F. C., 1886, pp. 474–476, plate IV, figs. 24–29. Report U. S. F. C., 1887, pp. 819–820. Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., vol. XX, p. 447. Bull. U. S. F. C., 1899, pp. 272–273, 426, 427, 428. Bull. Bureau of Fisheries, vol. XXIV, pp. 340, 343.

One specimen was found in the spiral valve of the cub-shark (*Carcharhinus platyodon*), July 12.

Dimensions, in life, in millimeters: Length 9.8; bothrium, length 0.50, breadth 0.20; breadth of head 0.42, of neck 0.16, narrowing to 0.12 at a distance of 0.35 from the head, then enlarging again; first distinct segment 4.9 back of head, but indications of segments in front of this; first segment, length 0.35, breadth 0.22; last segment, length 0.84, breadth 0.36; length of longer prong of hook 0.10, of shorter prong 0.03.

15. Thysanocephalum crispum Linton.

Report U. S. F. C., 1886 (*Phyllobothrium thysanocephalum*), pp. 464–468, plate II, figs. 1–12. Report U. S. F. C., 1887, pp. 823–824. Report U. S. F. C., 1888, pp. 543–556, plates LXI–LXVII, figs. 1–43. Bull. U. S. F. C., 1899, pp. 271, 426. Year Book of Carnegie Institution of Washington for 1906, p. 116.

Found in what was presumably a tiger-shark (*Galeocerdo tigrinus*).

This shark was captured on June 2, before my arrival at the laboratory, and the spiral valve was preserved in formalin. While the shark had not been identified, the type of the spiral valve, the nature of the stomach contents, and, particularly, the presence of this entozoan in great numbers, both of large and small examples, all point to the tiger-shark as the host (see pp. 164, 167).

These worms were found to be very numerous, large and small together, and still attached to the mucous membrane of the spiral valve. The folds of the pseudoscolex are preserved expanded and are in an unusually fine state of preservation. This condition is the result of the intestines having been placed in formalin while the worms were still adhering to the intestinal walls. Not only do the specimens exhibit the structure of the pseudoscolex better than would have been the case if the worms had been detached before they were placed in the preserving fluid, but they also illustrate the mode of attachment of this singular worm to its host. When this parasite attaches itself to the intestinal wall the minute head penetrates the mucous membrane while the fimbriated folds of the pseudoscolex are spread widely, thus making an adhering, and probably, at the same time, an absorbing organ.

One of these scoleces was mounted in balsam. The diameter is 9 mm. There are eight pairs of primary divisions of the pseudoscolex. These are simply outgrowths of the anterior end of the strobile, being preceded

by the head and neck, which are so small as to be easily overlooked by the collector. In its expanded condition this peculiar organ is a disk with fimbriated edges. Each of the primary divisions has a tendency to divide, some of them nearly to the base. The diameter of the central, undivided part is 4 mm. The radiating divisions and the undivided central portion are all profusely frilled and folded. The minute scolex is often lost in detaching the worm from the mucous membrane of its host.

16. Scolex polymorphus Rudolphi.

Report U. S. F. C., 1886, pp. 3, 4, plate VI, figs. 8, 9. Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., vol. XIX, pp. 789–792, plate I, figs. 4–15. Bull. U. S. F. C., 1899, pp. 270–284, and 413, etc., noted under 28 hosts. Bull. Bureau of Fisheries, vol. XXIV, p. 332, etc., noted under 34 hosts.

The literature of this title is very extensive. Without doubt it has been used as a specific name to designate the larvæ of a great variety of cestodes belonging to many different genera. It is a convenient term, however, and in my papers is to be understood to refer to small larval cestodes found free in the alimentary canal and bile-duct of many fishes.

Since these forms are evidently possessed of great powers or resistance to the digestive juices of fish in general, they doubtless often pass a longer or shorter time of sojourn in each of many hosts, related to each other as eater and eaten. Ultimately they attain the adult state in some selachian.

These larvæ were not found in many of the Tortugas fishes which were examined in the season of 1906, nor were they at all abundant in those situations in which they were found.

Following is a list of the finds of this larva:

July 7.—A few small larvæ were found in the intestine of a grouper (*Epinephelus striatus*). The bothria were without costæ, and there was no red pigment in the neck.

July 10.—Several larvæ were observed in washings from the alimentary tract of a frigate mackerel (*Auxis thazard*). These were small, active, with no red pigment, but with a distinct costa on each bothrium.

July 11.—Several small larvæ were seen in washings from the alimentary canal of a black grouper (*Mycteroperca bonaci*).

July 5 and 9.—A few were found on the first date and several on the second in the gray snapper (*Lutianus griseus*). They were small, active, with prominent and distinct anterior sucker, and simple bothria. The water vascular system was distinct, especially at the posterior end.

July 6.—A few were found in the yellow-tail (*Ocyurus chrysurus*). These were small, with the rudiments of a costa on each bothrium, and two small red pigment spots in the neck. They were very active.

17. Rhynchobothrium speciosum Linton.

(Plate 11, figs. 78, 79.)

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., vol. XIX, pp. 801–805, plate LXIV, figs. 13, 14, and plate LXV, figs, 1–7. Bull. U. S. F. C., 1899, p. 413, etc., noted in 11 hosts. Bull. Bureau of Fisheries, vol. XXIV, pp. 369, 373, 384.

This species is comparatively easy to recognize on account of the highly characteristic arrangement of the hooks. The encysted stage only was found. The following notes were made at the time of collecting:

1. *Epinephelus striatus.*

July 7.—Elongated cysts, colored with brown pigment, were found on the liver and mesentery. They were left over night in sea-water, and on the following morning five larvæ had crept out of the cysts.

July 11, several; July 12, two. Long-pyriform cysts with dark pigment were found on the viscera. The blastocysts (*plerocerca*) were very active after they had been freed from their cysts.

Dimensions of a living larva, in millimeters: Length 40; breadth, varying with the length, about 1 when the length was 40; length of head and neck 7; length of bothria 0.84: breadth of head, flattened, 1.12; diameter of neck, flattened, anterior 0.77, at bulbs 0.84; contractile bulbs, length 1.40, breadth 0.14; proboscis, length 3.5, diameter, near base, exclusive of hooks, 0.068.

There is much variety of size and shape of bothria and neck in the alcoholic specimens.

Many cysts, dark-brown and filled with waxy degenerate tissue, were found in the stomach wall of the grouper on July 7 and 8, some of which may be due to this parasite.

2. *Mycteroperca venenosa.*

July 18.—Many elongated cysts were found on the viscera. These cysts were all very dark-brown, some of them even almost blue-black. One larva was released and proved to belong to this species.

3. *Mycteroperca bonaci.*

July 11.—Several large, long-pyriform cysts were found on the viscera. Most of these cysts were dark-brown, slightly iridescent, and associated with mats or tangles of filiform cysts which had been occupied by immature nematodes.

A small larva from this lot was thought at the time of collecting to be specifically different from the larger specimens, but after mounting the worm in balsam and studying the hooks, I have concluded to record it under this species. While it is much smaller than the others, the arrangement of the hooks is in close agreement.

Diameter of proboscis, exclusive of hooks, in millimeters, 0.04: length of largest hooks 0.021, as against 0.05, the usual size.

4. *Lutianus griseus.*

July 5.—One small larva from this host, while much smaller than usual for this species, agrees so closely with it in the arrangement of the hooks that it also is recorded here.

Another like it was collected on July 10.

Dimensions of living specimen, slightly compressed, in millimeters: Length 3.64; head, length 0.49, breadth 0.63; neck, length 1.96, breadth, anterior, 0.35; bulbs, length 0.51, breadth 0.14; proboscis, length, estimated, 1.40, diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.04; length of largest hooks, about 0.021.

18. Rhynchobothrium simile sp. nov.

(Plate 5, figs. 30–37, and plate 6, fig. 38.)

This tetrarhynch belongs to the group of comparatively large forms, represented by *R. imparispine* and *R. speciosum,* to which it bears a close resemblance. It resembles the latter in the general habit of the scolex and neck, but is more like the former in the character of the hooks. Indeed, at the time of collecting it was thought to belong to that species, and it was not until the hooks were examined critically that the great difference between them and those of *R. imparispine* was revealed. The general character and arrangement of the hooks may be seen in the figures.

Bothria, in alcoholic specimens, about as broad as long, emarginate on the posterior border, with margins raised so as to make the face a deep cup; in marginal view distinct from each other, the posterior ends flaring slightly. Head in both marginal and lateral views wider than neck. The bothria are attached on those sides of the head which correspond to the flat surfaces of the strobile. Contractile bulbs rather long and slender, the retractor muscle of the proboscides being attached at the posterior ends of the bulbs.

The first segments begin near the base of the neck, at first as faint transverse lines, then as distinct segments much broader than long, lengthening posteriorly, soon becoming squarish, and ultimately longer than broad. The entire strobile is linear and the segments squarish. In a typical specimen, measuring 50 mm. in length, the last segment was 2 mm. in length and 1.5 mm. in breadth. The average length of the last four segments was a little less than 2 mm.

The genital cloaca is at about the posterior third, and is a shallow notch with abrupt sides. In glycerin the segments show longitudinal striæ like those noted in *R. imparispine* (Report U. S. Fish Com. for 1887, pp. 840–843, plate XII, figs. 6–9).

The proboscides are long and beset with hooks of many different patterns, the longest of which measures as much as 0.2 mm.

Dimensions of a specimen mounted in balsam, in millimeters: Length of head and neck 6; bothria, length 1.20, breadth 1.00; bulbs, length 2.5,

breadth 0.4; proboscis, length, estimated, 3, diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.19; length of longest hook 0.20. In an alcoholic specimen, somewhat more slender than usual, the average length of the last four segments was 3.5, the breadth, 0.09.

From the nurse-shark (*Ginglimostoma cirratum*):

July 2, one scolex and strobile, and a fragment, spiral valve.

July 6, 59, in upper part of spiral valve.

19. Rhynchobothrium tenuispine Linton.

Report U. S. F. C., 1887, pp. 837–838, plate XII, figs. 1, 2. Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., vol. XX, pp. 448–449, plate XXXIV, fig. 8. Bull. U. S. F. C., 1899, pp. 426, 433. Bull. Bureau of Fisheries, vol. XXIV, p. 348.

Numerous small tetrarhynchs from the nurse-shark (*Ginglimostoma cirratum*) agree very closely with this species, and are for the present referred to it.

The neck is rather long and slender, often long-pyriform, tapering forward, with red pigment at the base in front of and beside the contractile bulbs. The neck in many cases was strongly spinose, the spines on the neck being considerably larger than those on the proboscis. These neck-spines are much less dense on some than on others, and are therefore evidently an evanescent character. The proboscides are relatively very long, with bulbous base, and are armed with minute hooks. The hooks on the base of the proboscides agree closely with this species, while those towards the distal end are, perhaps, a little smaller and more slender. The first segments are in some cases moniliform.

Measurements were made of specimens mounted in balsam and showed a close correspondence with the dimensions given for this species. A few of these measurements, in millimeters, are here given: Length of head and neck 1.10; breadth of head 0.28, of neck, behind head, 0.16, at contractile bulbs 0.22; length of contractile bulbs 0.40; length of first segment 0.09, breadth 0.12; diameter of proboscis at tumid base 0.025, in front of tumid base 0.018. The length in life is about 5 mm.

Seventy-five specimens were collected from the spiral valve of a nurse-shark on July 5, and numerous specimens were obtained on July 6. In both cases the shark was large.

20. Rhynchobothrium lineatum sp. nov.

(Plate 6, figs. 39–43.)

Bothria elliptical, entire, widely flaring at base; neck cylindrical, with evanescent spines; contractile bulbs long and slender; sheaths in close spirals; proboscides very long, slender, and slightly enlarged near the base, hooks very minute and closely set. Body continuous without any constriction behind the bulbs, linear, increasing in breadth very little posteriorly and

that very gradually. First distinct segments begin a short distance back of neck, at first much broader than long, soon becoming squarish, then longer than broad, all with crenulate margins. Genital aperture marginal in a deep rounded notch at about the posterior third; ripe segments with ova not seen; longest segment two and one-half times as long as broad.

There are many points of resemblance between this species and *R. longicorne*. Length of living specimens as much as 30 mm.; of alcoholic specimens 18 to 20 mm.

Dimensions, in balsam, given in millimeters: Length 20; length of head and neck 3.28; bothrium, length 0.27, breadth 0.27; diameter of neck, anterior 0.23, posterior 0.40; bulbs, length 1.36, breadth 0.14; first distinct segment, length about 0.08, breadth 0.40; last segment, length 1.12, breadth 0.56; proboscis, length (estimated) 2.5; diameter at base 0.05, near distal end 0.03; length of longest hooks 0.017.

The segments, in this specimen, are twenty in number, and are somewhat irregular in length, the last one not being the longest. The longest segment measures 1.6 in length, and 0.67 in breadth.

From the nurse-shark (*Ginglimostoma cirratum*).

July 6, four. July 15, seven and fragments.

21. Rhynchobothrium curtum sp. nov.

(Plate 6, figs. 44-47.)

Bothria broad-elliptical or oval-elliptical and somewhat thick, placed on the sides of the head which correspond to the lateral margins of the strobile. Head, in side view, heart-shaped; neck very short, shorter than bothria; bulbs oval-elliptical, sheaths nearly straight; proboscides short, hooks small. Body at first a little narrower than neck; first segments begin near neck, at first much broader than long, but soon becoming as long as broad, then very soon becoming longer than broad, with rounded corners and more or less crenulated or indented margins; marginal vessels conspicuous; reproductive aperture at about the posterior fourth.

Only preserved specimens were seen; the largest specimen noted measured 10 mm. in length.

Measurements, in millimeters, of a specimen mounted in balsam: Length 6; head, length 0.21, breadth 0.22; neck, length 0.06, breadth 0.07; breadth of body behind neck 0.10; distance to first distinct segment 0.08; first segment, length 0.02, breadth 0.11.

The hooks were not seen very distinctly, as no proboscis was everted. A number of measurements showed that the longer hooks were about 0.024 in length. Only one was found which measured as much as 0.04. It was near the base of the proboscis.

As the increase in length and breadth of segments is much the same in different specimens, the following measurements of all the segments in one example are given:

Segment.	Length.	Breadth.	Segment.	Length.	Breadth.
1	0.02	0.11	7	0.16	0.16
2	.03	.11	8	.21	.17
3	.05	.12	9	.43	.19
4	.06	.14	10	.62	.24
5	.11	.16	11	.72	.30
6	.12	.16	12	1.23	.32

The general outline of the head and neck of this species bears a strong resemblance to that of *Otobothrium crenacolle*. There are no accessory organs on the bothria, however, and the contractile bulbs do not diverge at their posterior ends; furthermore, the bothria correspond in position to the lateral margins of the strobile instead of to the flat surface.

From the tiger-shark (*Galeocerdo tigrinus*), June 2, five, spiral valve. See remarks under *Thysanocephalus* (pp. 164, 167).

LARVAL STAGE.

On July 11 a small amber-colored cyst was found on the viscera of a black grouper (*Mycteroperca bonaci*). The cyst contained a blastocyst in which was a small larva which appears to belong to this species, although the general appearance, not only of the larva, but of the cyst as well, was almost identical with that of the larva and cyst of *O. crenacolle*. There is, however, no indication of accessory organs on the bothria, while the hooks, thick-margined bothria, short neck, and undivergent bulbs, all agree with the species from the tiger-shark.

Measurements of living specimen, in millimeters: Cyst, length 0.84, breadth 0.50; blastocyst, length 0.32, breadth 0.18; larva, length 0.16, breadth 0.08.

On July 11 one larva of this species was obtained from a cyst on the viscera of a grouper (*Epinephelus striatus*).

22. Rhynchobothrium exile sp. nov.

(Plate 7, figs. 48–54.)

Bothria with thin, flexible margins, thus giving to the preserved specimens a variety of shapes, nearly parallel in marginal view, with posterior ends sometimes slightly divergent. Neck two or more times the length of the head, cylindrical, and as wide as or wider than the body, and thicker; bulbs long-oval or elliptical, sheaths in close spirals; proboscides long, only the basal portions seen everted; bulbous enlargement at base of proboscis armed with many small and a few large hooks. On the everted part of the proboscis the hooks are of very diverse shape and size, on the inverted part they appear to be more regular in shape than they are at the base. Body linear, filiform; first segments begin near base of neck, at first very short, increasing in length rapidly, ultimately becoming many times as long as

broad; breadth of body varies but little; free segments with ova very much elongated. The reproductive cloaca is near the posterior end of the proglottis; the vagina opens behind the cirrus pouch. The ovary is situated about half-way between the cirrus pouch and the posterior end of the segment. The testes occupy the median axial region of the entire segment, except a short space at the anterior end. The vitellaria lie along the margins, and also spread peripherally over the median axial region, thus obscuring the other organs, especially in the mature segments. The uterus lies along the median line, and, in one of the free segments, extended as a slender tube containing ova, at least as far forward as the anterior third. In others the ova lay in an elongated mass from just in front of the reproductive cloaca to about the anterior fifth.

The lateral vessels are very conspicuous, except in the free segments, also the last segment in the strobiles examined did not have as conspicuous lateral vessels as the preceding segments.

Living specimens not seen.

Dimensions, in millimeters: Length of longest about 30; length of head and neck 1.12; head, length 0.45, breadth 0.40; bothrium, length 0.45, breadth (estimated) 0.40; breadth of neck, anterior 0.24, base 0.27; bulbs, length 0.32, breadth 0.11; breadth of body near neck 0.16; distance to first distinct segment 0.3; first segment, length 0.03, breadth 0.16; a middle segment, length 1.20, breadth 0.19; last segment, length 3.68, breadth 0.32; proboscis, length (estimated) 1, diameter, behind and in front of bulbous enlargement, 0.04, at bulbous enlargement 0.06. In a strobile 18 mm. long, the last segment was 2.24 long and 0.4 broad; the last segment in another of 26 mm. in length was 4 mm. long and 0.3 mm. broad. A free segment measured 5.5 in length and 0.6 in breadth.

Mature segments resembling these have been noticed before in the chyle of the spiral valve of the tiger-shark at Woods Hole, but this is the first time I have seen the scoleces.

From spiral valve of tiger-shark (*Galeocerdo tigrinus*), captured June 2. Eighty-five specimens were collected, all filiform, with a conspicuous enlargement at the base of the proboscides and edges of the bothria folded as if rather thin and flexible.

For remarks on the identification of the host see under *Thysanocephalum* (pp. 164, 167).

23. Rhynchobothrium binuncum sp. nov.

(Plate 8, figs. 55–64.)

Strobile small, slender, with few segments. Bothria short, rather widely separated in front, at least when compressed; neck relatively long, with very long, slender, contractile bulbs, equaling in length half the total length of the head and neck; sheaths in loose spirals; proboscides long and for the most part with small, slender spines, but with a few larger spines near the

base; among the latter are two which are larger than the others and stand side by side. These two spines are quite conspicuous. They are of nearly uniform size from the base to near the tip, where they terminate in a short recurved, almost acuminate hook. These characters are best seen in the figures. A third spine of the same general shape, but much smaller, stands near the large pair.

The segments begin immediately behind the neck, are few, four or five in the example studied, increase in length rapidly, but remain rather narrow. The last segment may be as long as the rest of the strobile; reproductive aperture marginal, a little back of the middle, making a shallow notch with gently sloping sides.

Dimensions, in millimeters, of a living specimen, a strobile with four segments: Length 7.31; length of head and neck 1.68; length of bothrium 0.28; breadth of head 0.56, of neck 0.39; length of bulbs 0.84; distance from base of neck to first distinct segment 0.07; length of first segment 0.14, of second 0.42, of third 1.40, of fourth 3.60; breadth of third 0.19, of fourth 0.42; diameter of proboscis, exclusive of hooks, 0.04; length of longest hook noted 0.023. In a specimen, mounted in balsam, there were five segments, which had the following lengths: 0.08, 0.13, 0.45, 1.23, 3.48; length of head and neck 1.25.

Dimensions of a specimen in balsam: Length 5.97; length of bothrium 0.16; of head and neck 1.44; of bulbs 0.84; length of last segment 2.41. In a specimen, which measured 6.62 in length, the fifth and last segment was 3.48 in length. The largest hook measured was 0.035 in length.

From a sting-ray (*Dasyatis say*), July 10, ten, in spiral valve.

24. Rhynchobothrium sp.

(Plate 9, figs. 65–69.)

This is probably a new species, but since only one specimen was found, and it a scolex with the rudiment only of a strobile, it does not seem advisable to bestow a specific name upon it at present. The specimen was flattened at the time of collecting and is now mounted in balsam. The head can be seen only in side view. The bothria approach each other anteriorly and are widely flaring posteriorly. Their shape can not be made out exactly, but they evidently have flexible borders and are probably about as broad as they are long. The neck is also flattened and expands a short distance behind the head until it is as wide or wider than the head. The bulbs are long-fusiform, and the retractor muscles take their origin from the posterior ends. The sheaths are coiled in loose spirals. The proboscides are relatively very long and are armed with hooks which are short and of nearly uniform size and shape. The strobile is rudimentary, shorter than the head and neck and tapers to a blunt point at the posterior end. The lateral vessels there meet and open by a terminal pore. Segments have begun to form, but they are all very short.

The species has some suggestion of *R. lomentaceum.*

Dimensions, in millimeters, of specimen mounted in balsam: Length 3.5; head, flattened, breadth 0.56; length of bothria 0.40; bulbs, length 0.72, breadth 0.12; diameter of neck, flattened, anterior 0.38, posterior 0.56; proboscis, length (estimated) 3, diameter, exclusive of hooks, base 0.05, near apex 0.04; hooks (at base shorter and more crowded than at apex), length, at base 0.014, near apex 0.028.

From spiral valve of nurse-shark (*Ginglimostoma cirratum*). July 5, one.

25. Rhynchobothrium sp.

(Plate 10, figs. 70–74.)

Bothria foliaceous, but with margins somewhat thickened; head much broader than neck; neck slender, cylindrical, enlarging at bulbs; sheaths in close spirals; bulbs long-oval, with retractor muscle attached at about the middle of the length on the median wall; proboscides long, hooks of different sizes and shapes. The most marked differences are to be seen in those hooks which are near the base of the proboscides. On one side there are some small, straightish spines; on the other they are much larger; long and nearly straight, but with an abrupt curve at the apex. A single row of these large hooks extends around to the opposite side a short distance from the base. The proboscides were not seen fully extended. So far as seen, the hooks on one side remain small, slender and very sharp-pointed, but grow larger toward the apex, so that in the completely everted proboscis the difference between the hooks of the opposite sides is probably slight. The large hooks with abruptly recurved ends are confined to the basal region. Beyond the base the larger hooks become rather broad, in lateral view, and are strongly and uniformly curved. On the other hand, among the small hooks some distance from the base are hooks which are straightish with abruptly curved tips. Towards the tip of the proboscis, as may be seen in the retracted part, a prevailing form is a slender hook curved in two directions, like a letter **S** nearly straightened out.

Transverse striæ begin immediately below the neck. The first distinct segments are shorter than broad, but soon become as long as broad. They then rapidly and uniformly lengthen, but remain about the same breadth. The posterior segments are nearly ten times as long as broad, and their anterior ends are abruptly larger than the posterior end of the preceding segment. None of the segments were mature, although rudiments of reproductive organs could be made out. In the next to the last segment the rudiment of the cirrus bulb was a little behind the posterior third, and the ovary was at the posterior fifth. The anatomy of the posterior segments, so far as it could be made out, is much like that of *R. exile.*

Dimensions, in millimeters, of specimen mounted in balsam: Length 15; length of head and neck 2.4; breadth of head 0.73; bothrium, length 0.48,

breadth 0.48; diameter of neck, anterior 0.32, posterior 0.64; bulbs, length 0.64, breadth 0.16; first distinct segment, length, about 0.06, breadth 0.24; fifth segment, length 0.14, breadth 0.20; tenth segment, length 0.35, breadth 0.24; twentieth and last segment, length 2.08, breadth 0.22; proboscis, length, estimated, 3, breadth, exclusive of hooks, base 0.05, near apex 0.04; length of longest hooks, base 0.035, at apex of everted part, about 0.6 from base, 0.028.

From spiral valve of nurse-shark (*Ginglimostoma cirratum*), July 6, one.

ENCYSTED STAGE.

(Plate 10, fig. 75, and plate 11, figs. 76, 77.)

A larva taken from a cyst in the walls of the rectum of the green moray (*Lycodontis funebris*) is in such close agreement with this species that I do not hesitate to place them together.

The blastocyst resembles that of the genus *Synbothrium*. Its posterior end was orange-yellow, which perhaps has no special significance.

Dimensions, in millimeters, of living larva, flattened: Length 4.34; bothrium, length 0.75, breadth 0.75; neck, length 3.16, breadth 0.47; bulbs, length 0.63, breadth 0.16; proboscis, length, estimated, 1.96, diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.056; length of longest hooks 0.035.

26. Rhynchobothrium sp.

(Plate 11, figs. 80–82.)

A single minute tetrarhynch, found July 12, in the spiral valve of a large cub-shark (*Dasyatis say*), has many points of resemblance to *R. hispidum*, but the hooks, while showing close relationship, are not in sufficiently close agreement to permit the specimen to be referred with certainty to that species. Only the head and neck and a very short piece of the strobile were secured.

The bothria are separated by a space at the anterior ends, and are widely divergent at their posterior ends. The neck is nearly linear, only slightly larger at base than in front, and is spinose. The bulbs are parallel and equal to about half the length of the neck; sheaths loosely spiral; proboscides relatively long; hooks very small, for the most part slender and spinose, a few larger hooks, broad, in lateral view, near the base. Only the basal portion of the proboscides was seen. The hooks on the inverted portion do not show much variety. None of the broad variety, seen near the base, and characteristic of *R. hispidum*, could be made out through the transparent walls of the sheaths.

Dimensions, in millimeters, of specimen mounted in balsam: Length of head and neck 0.72; length of bothrium 0.19; bulbs, length 0.32, breadth 0.04; diameter of proboscis, exclusive of hooks, 0.017; length of largest hooks 0.007.

27. Rhynchobothrium sp.

(Plate 11, figs. 83–87.)

A larval tetrarhynch was obtained from a cyst on the viscera of a Spanish sardine (*Clupanodon pseudohispanicus*), on July 9, which I have not been able to refer to any described species.

Bothria about as long as broad, emarginate on posterior border, approaching each other in front, divergent behind. The neck is cylindrical, increasing slightly in diameter to base, with a slight hint of a fold at the base, minutely spinose. Sheaths very densely coiled spirals; bulbs moderately short, arcuate; proboscides relatively long; hooks small, but of several different kinds. The most of the hooks are slender, those at the base sharp-pointed and slightly arcuate. Elsewhere they are slender, straightish, with a tendency to have abruptly recurved tips. There are a few, two or three, longitudinal rows of shorter hooks.

Dimensions, in millimeters, of specimen mounted in balsam: Length of head and neck 0.88; length of bothrium 0.17; diameter of head 0.22; of neck, anterior 0.14, base 0.20; bulbs, length 0.19, breadth 0.05; proboscides, length (estimated) 1, diameter at base, exclusive of hooks, 0.017; length of longest hook 0.01.

28. Otobothrium crenacolle Linton.

Report U. S. F. C., 1887, pp. 850–853, plate XIII, figs. 9–15, plate XIV, fig. 14. Bull. U. S. F. C., 1889, pp. 273, 428. Bull. Bureau of Fisheries, vol. XXIV, p. 331, etc., encysted in 13 hosts, adult in 1.

Two specimens of this species were found in the spiral valve of a cub-shark (*Carcharhinus platyodon*), July 12.

Dimensions of living specimen, in millimeters, flattened: Length 2.24; head, length 0.28, breadth 0.30; neck, length 0.16, breadth, anterior, 0.16, at base 0.19; bulbs, length 0.084, breadth 0.046; breadth of body behind neck 0.12; last segment, length 0.86, breadth 0.21.

This species is of very wide distribution. At Beaufort it was found encysted in thirteen species of teleosts and adult in one selachian. At Woods Hole it is of frequent occurrence encysted in a variety of teleosts and adult in the hammerhead shark. It infests the muscles of the common butter-fish (*Poronotus triacanthus*) to an unusual degree.

29. Synbothrium filicolle Linton.

Report U. S. F. C., 1887, pp. 861–862, plate XV, figs. 2–4. Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., vol. XIX, p. 819, plate LXVIII, fig. 10. Bull. U. S. F. C., 1899, pp. 275, 413, 414, etc., noted in 10 hosts. Bull. Bureau of Fisheries, vol. XXIV, p. 333, etc., noted in 9 hosts.

One adult of this species was found in the spiral valve of the sting-ray (*Dasyatis say*), July 10.

Dimensions of living specimen, in millimeters: Length 6; length of head and neck 0.84; diameter of head 0.56, of neck 0.21; length of bulbs 0.42; distance from base of neck to first distinct segment 0.14; first segment, length 0.21, breadth 0.08; second segment, length 0.42, breadth 0.08; third segment, length 0.84, breadth 0.11; fourth segment, length 1.54, breadth 0.35, variable; ova 0.034 by 0.022, and 0.039 by 0.020 in the two principal diameters.

The proboscides were but slightly everted, but the hooks, so far as seen, agree with this species. Length of hooks about 0.04.

EXPLANATION OF PLATES.

Letters which have the same meaning in the different figures.

b. Muscular bulbs, whose use is to evert the proboscides by pressure on fluid with which they are filled.
c. Cirrus.
c. p. Cirrus pouch.
g. Rudiment of genitalia.
l. m. Longitudinal muscle.
l. v. Lateral vessel.
o. Ovary.
r. a. Reproductive aperture.
r. m. Retractor muscle of proboscides.
sh. Proboscis sheath.
t. Testes.
u. Uterus.
v. Vagina.
v. d. Vas deferens.
v. g. Vitelline glands.
y. d. Vitelline duct.

In all cases the actual size of the object sketched in the several figures is given.

PLATE 1.

Dibothrium sp., from *Atherina laticeps.*

1. Larva in cyst, sketched from life, actual length of larva 2.8 mm.
2. Same, flattened, mounted in balsam, length of larva 3 mm.

Rhinebothrium sp., from *Dasyatis say.*

3. Head, neck, and anterior segments sketched from mounted specimen. Actual length of neck 0.14 mm.
4. Posterior segments, balsam. Actual length of last segment 0.35 mm.

Undetermined cestode from *Carcharhinus platyodon.*

5. Memorandum sketch of living worm; length of bothrium 0.29 mm.
6. Sketch of same, specimen mounted in balsam; diameter of head 0.40 mm.
7. Fourth segment from last, in balsam; actual length 0.60 mm.

Discocephalum pileatum from *Carcharhinus platyodon.*

8. Segmenting ova; actual size 0.035 by 0.032 mm., in the two principal diameters. Sketches made from living ova. *a*, July 12; *b*, July 13; *c*, July 14.

PLATE 2.

Pedibothrium globicephalum gen. et sp. nov., from *Ginglimostoma cirratum.*

9. Head and neck, flattened, life; actual diameter of head 1.8 mm.
10. Head and neck, balsam; actual diameter of head 1 mm.
11, 12. Single bothria, life; actual lengths 0.86 and 0.92 mm.
13. Typical hook, side view; actual length 0.086 mm.
14. Pair of hooks, from small specimen; actual length 0.085 mm.
15. Segments with rudiments of reproductive organs, balsam; actual breadth 0.35 mm.
16. Free, mature segment, balsam; actual length 1.8 mm.

PLATE 3.

Pedibothrium longispine gen. et sp. nov., from *Ginglimostoma cirratum.*

17. Sketch of a strobile, life; actual length of bothrium 0.35 mm.
18. Head, balsam; maximum diameter of head 0.32 mm.
19. Hook; actual length 0.16 mm.

Pedibothrium brevispine gen. et sp. nov., from *Ginglimostoma cirratum.*

20, 21. Single hooks, different views; actual length 0.068 mm.
22. Free, ripe segment, balsam; actual length 2.8 mm.

PLATE 4.

Pedibothrium brevispine, continued, from *Ginglimostoma cirratum.*

23. Pair of hooks; actual length 0.064 mm.
24. Head, balsam; maximum diameter 0.21 mm.
25. Free, ripe segment with cirrus exserted; actual length 2.8 mm.

Acanthobothrium brevissime sp. nov., from *Dasyatis say.*

26. Strobile, balsam; actual length 1.43 mm. The enlargement at the base of the neck is probably a contraction character.
27. Head, balsam; length of head 0.25 mm.
28. Single hook.
29. Pair of hooks, prongs broken.
Actual length in figs. 28 and 29, 0.05 mm.

PLATE 5.

Rhynchobothrium simile sp. nov., from *Ginglimostoma cirratum.*

30. Head, neck and anterior part of strobile; lateral view of the head; actual diameter of neck behind head 0.6 mm.
31. Head, showing margins of bothria; diameter of neck behind head 0.65 mm.
32. Proboscis, near base; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.19 mm.
33. Proboscis, near base, showing side opposite to that shown in figure 32; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.17 mm.
34. Proboscis 0.8 mm. from base; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.17 mm.
35, 36. Two types of hooks shown in fig. 34, more enlarged; lengths 0.16 and 0.17 mm.
37. Last segment, in glycerin; length 2 mm.

PLATE 6.

Rhynchobothrium simile sp. nov., continued.

38. Base of proboscis; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.17 mm.

Rhynchobothrium lineatum sp. nov., from *Ginglimostoma cirratum.*

39. Head and neck, balsam; length of head and neck 3.5 mm.
40. Proboscis at base; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.05 mm. Partly diagrammatic.
41. Proboscis, middle; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.04 mm.
42. Proboscis, near apex; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.04 mm.
43. Segment toward posterior end of strobile; length 1 mm.

Rhynchobothrium curtum sp. nov., from *Galeocerdo tigrinus.*

44. Head, neck, and anterior part of strobile, alcoholic, showing marginal view of bothrium; length of head 0.20 mm.
45. Lateral view of bothrium, and anterior end of strobile, alcoholic; length of bothrium 0.19 mm.
46. Same view of another specimen mounted in balsam; length of bothrium 0.19 mm.
47. Last segments of strobile mounted in balsam; breadth of last segment 0.33 mm.

PLATE 7.

Rhynchobothrium exile sp. nov., from *Galeocerdo tigrinus.*

48. Head and neck sketched from alcoholic specimens; diameter of neck, anterior, 0.28 mm.

49. Base of proboscis; diameter of enlargement, exclusive of hooks, 0.07 mm.
50. Another view of base of proboscis; diameter of enlargement, exclusive of hooks, 0.07 mm.
51. Another view of proboscis; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.031 mm.
52. Types of hooks; length 0.020 to 0.028 mm.
53. Segments near posterior end of strobile; maximum diameter 0.35 mm.
54. Free segment, partly diagrammatic. Testes represented a little larger than natural; vitelline glands partly cover testes in nature; length 5.5 mm.

PLATE 8.

Rhynchobothrium binuncum sp. nov., from *Dasyatis say.*

55. Strobile, balsam; actual length 5 mm.
56. Head, neck, and anterior end of the body, balsam; length of head and neck 1.25 mm.
57, 58. Different views of base of proboscis, showing characteristic paired hooks; length of largest hooks 0.03 mm.
59. Another view of proboscis; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.03 mm.
60. View of proboscis towards distal end; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.035 mm.
61, 62, 63. Different views of paired hooks which are situated near the base of each proboscis. The pairs shown in these sketches are from different proboscides; length of longest 0.030, 0.031, and 0.035 mm. in the several pairs.
64. Posterior segment, specimen mounted in balsam; actual length 2.41 mm. Length of strobile from which this sketch was made 5.97 mm.

PLATE 9.

Rhynchobothrium sp., from *Ginglimostoma cirratum.*

65. Entire specimen, showing head, neck, and rudimentary strobile, balsam; actual length 3.5 mm.
66. View of proboscis near base; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.056 mm. The hooks become yet denser a little anterior to the point shown in the sketch.
67. View of proboscis near distal end, opposite to view shown in fig. 68; diameter of proboscis, exclusive of hooks, 0.045 mm.
68. View opposite to that shown in fig. 67.
69. Posterior end of strobile, much enlarged, showing terminal pore of the excretory system; length of segment 0.26 mm.

PLATE 10.

Rhynchobothrium sp., from *Ginglimostoma cirratum.*

70. Head and neck, balsam; actual length 2.10 mm.
71. View of proboscis near base; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.06 mm.
72. View of proboscis 0.5 mm. from base (as much as was exserted); diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.05 mm.
73. View of proboscis opposite to that shown in fig. 72.
74. Next to last segment, balsam; actual length 2.24 mm.

Rhynchobothrium sp., from *Lycodontis funebris.* (Encysted stage of preceding species.)

75. View of proboscis on opposite side from that shown in fig. 76, and a little in front of it; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.038 mm.

PLATE 11.

Rhynchobothrium sp., from *Lycodontis funebris,* continued.

76. View of proboscis opposite to that shown in fig. 75, near base; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.040 mm.
77. Blastocyst with larva, sketch from life; actual length 4.34 mm. *l*, larva.

Rhynchobothrium speciosum, from cyst in *Mycteroperca bonaci.*

78. Cyst, sketch from life; actual length 22 mm.
79. Same, flattened so as to show blastocyst. *cy,* cyst; *l,* larva; *pg,* brown pigment su rounding *bl,* the blastocyst.

Rhynchobothrium sp., from *Dasyatis say.*

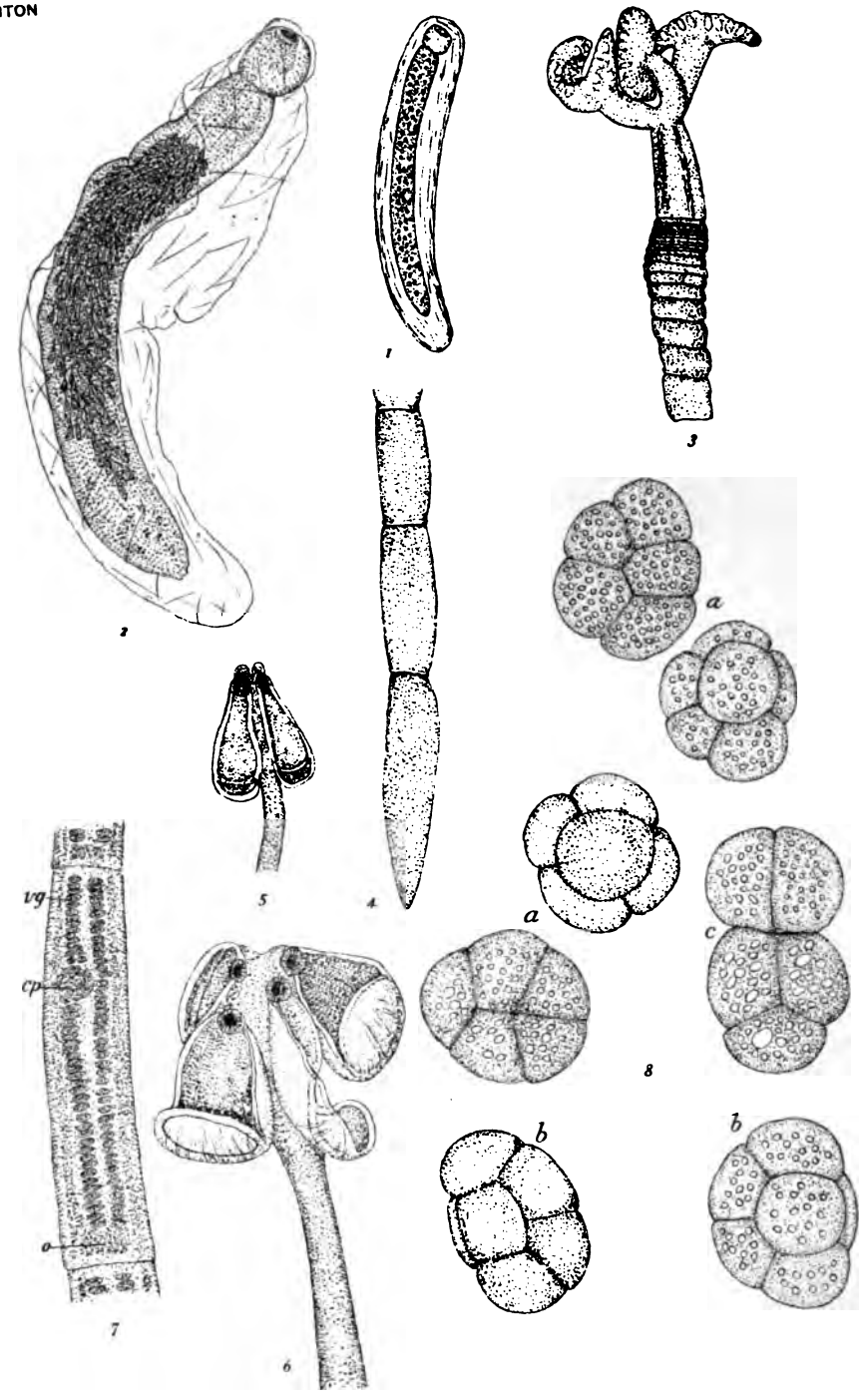
80. Entire specimen, balsam; actual length 0.90 mm.
81. View of proboscis at base, partly diagrammatic; diameter, exclusive of hoo 0.017 mm.
82. Another view of proboscis near base; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.014 m length of longest hooks 0.007 mm.

Rhynchobothrium sp., from *Clupanodon pseudohispanicus.*

83. Head and neck, balsam; actual diameter of head 0.22 mm.
84. View of proboscis near base; diameter, exclusive of hooks, 0.017 mm.
85, 86. Other views of proboscis.
87. Characteristic appearance of margins of proboscis; length of longest hoo 0.010 mm.

PLATE 1

LINTON



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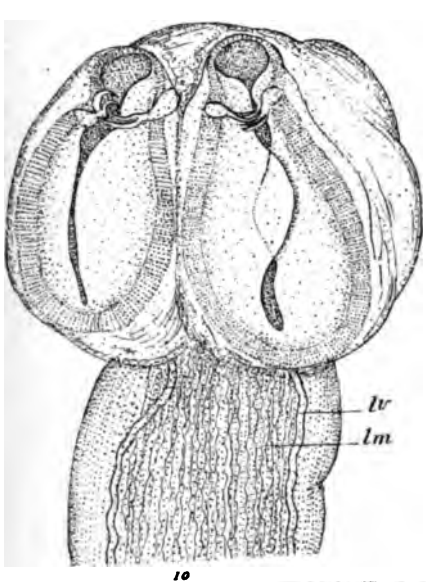

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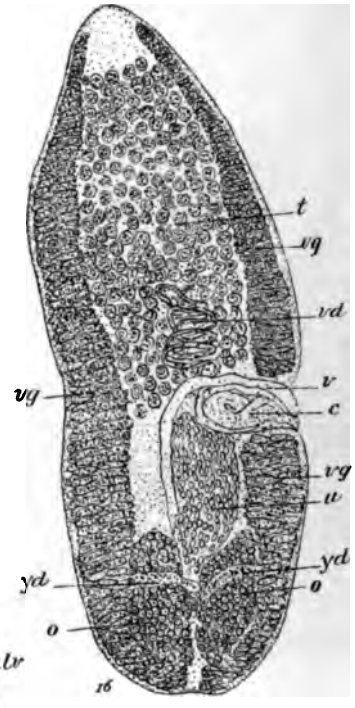

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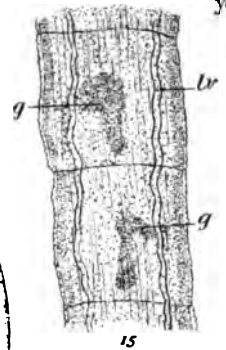

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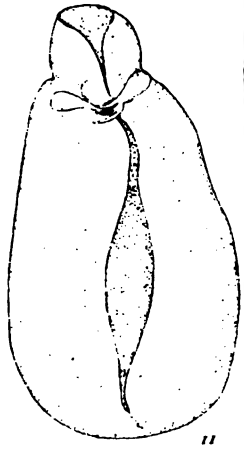

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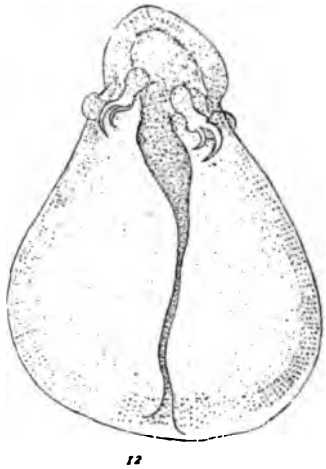

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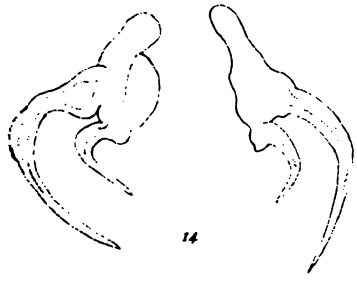

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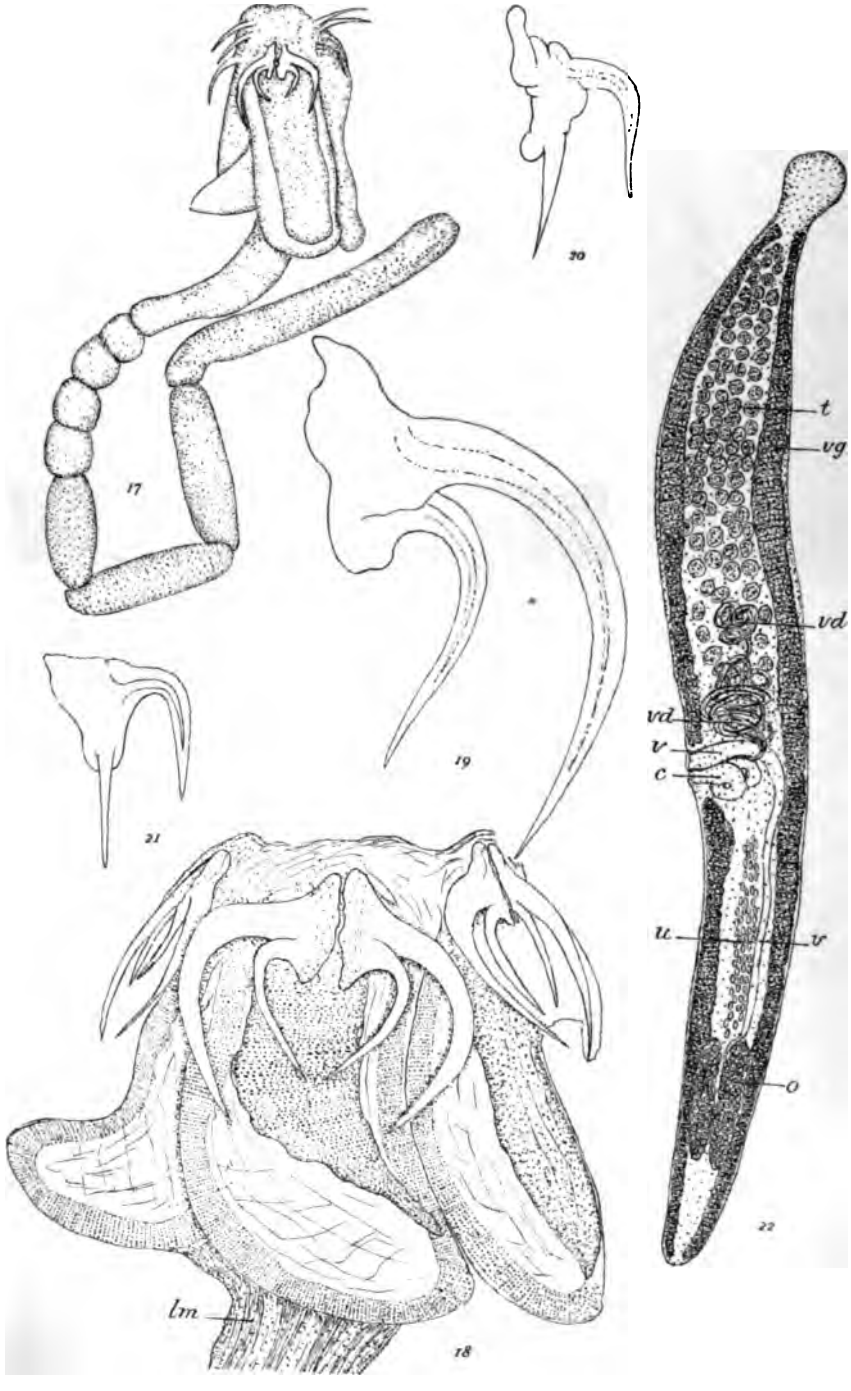
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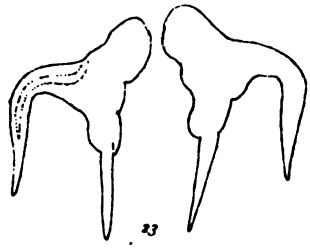

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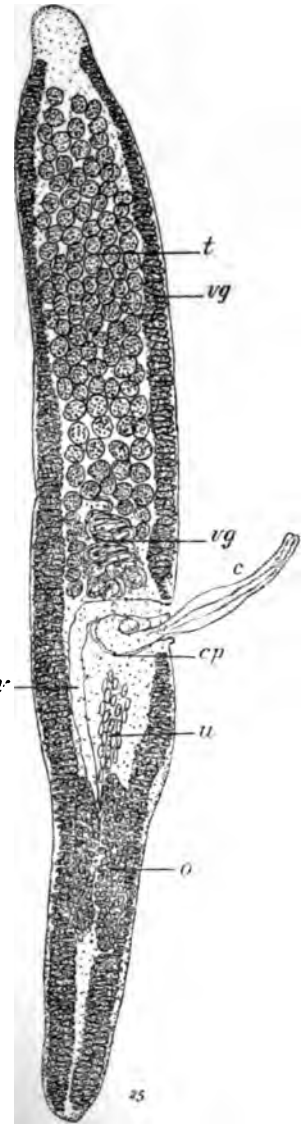

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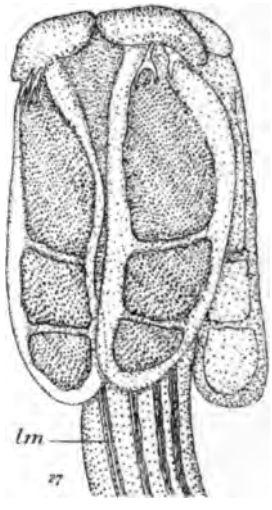

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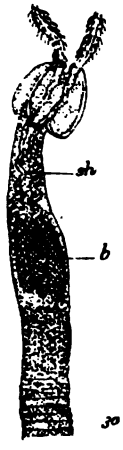

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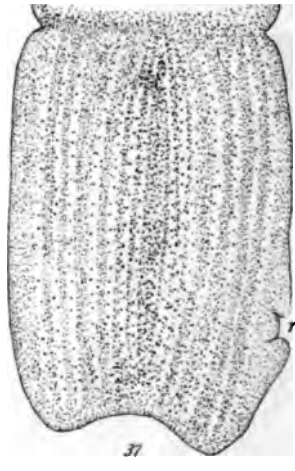

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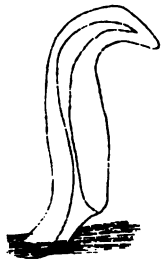

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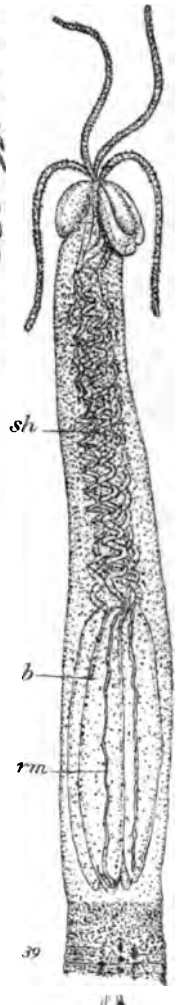

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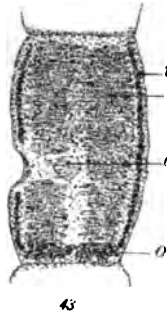

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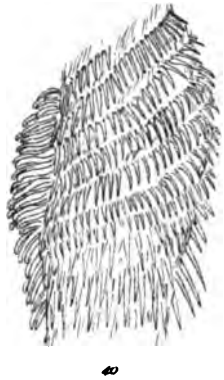

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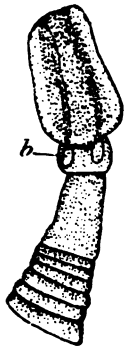

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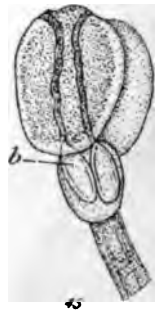

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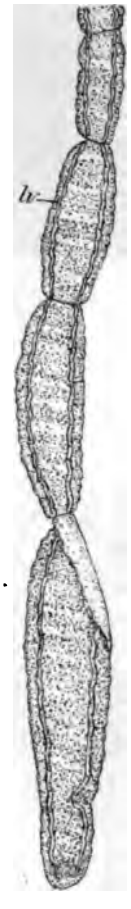

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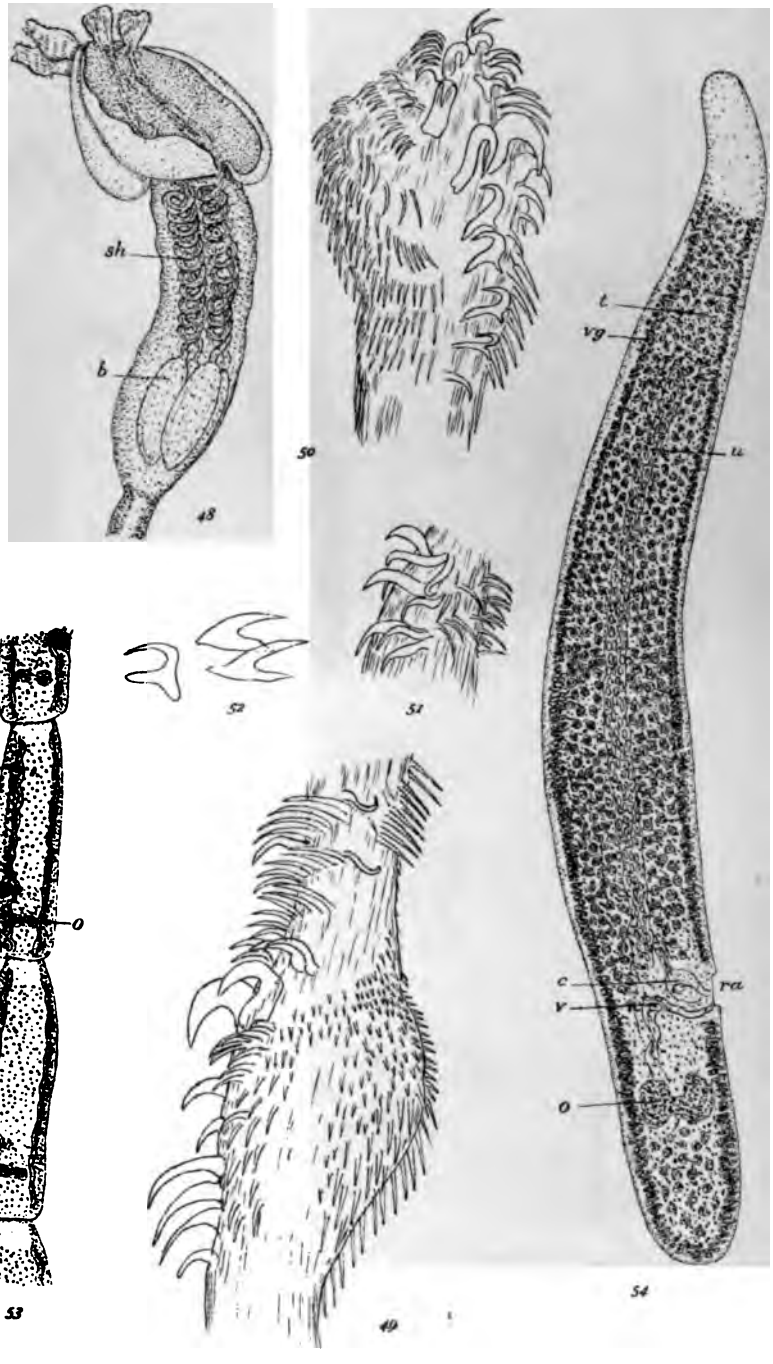
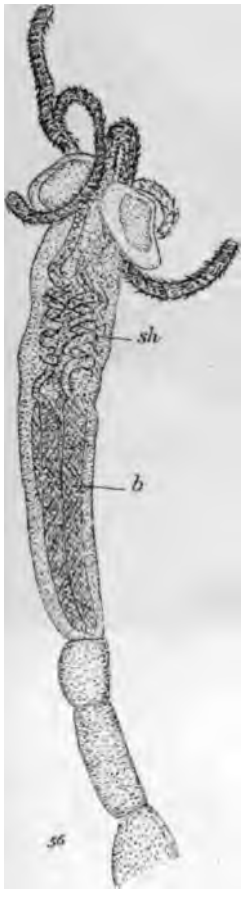
PLATE 7





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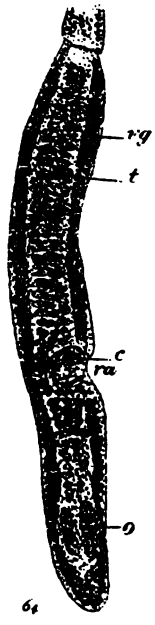

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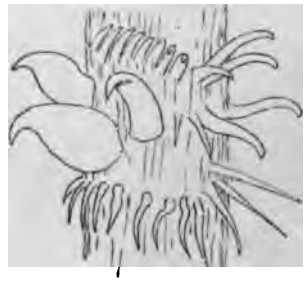

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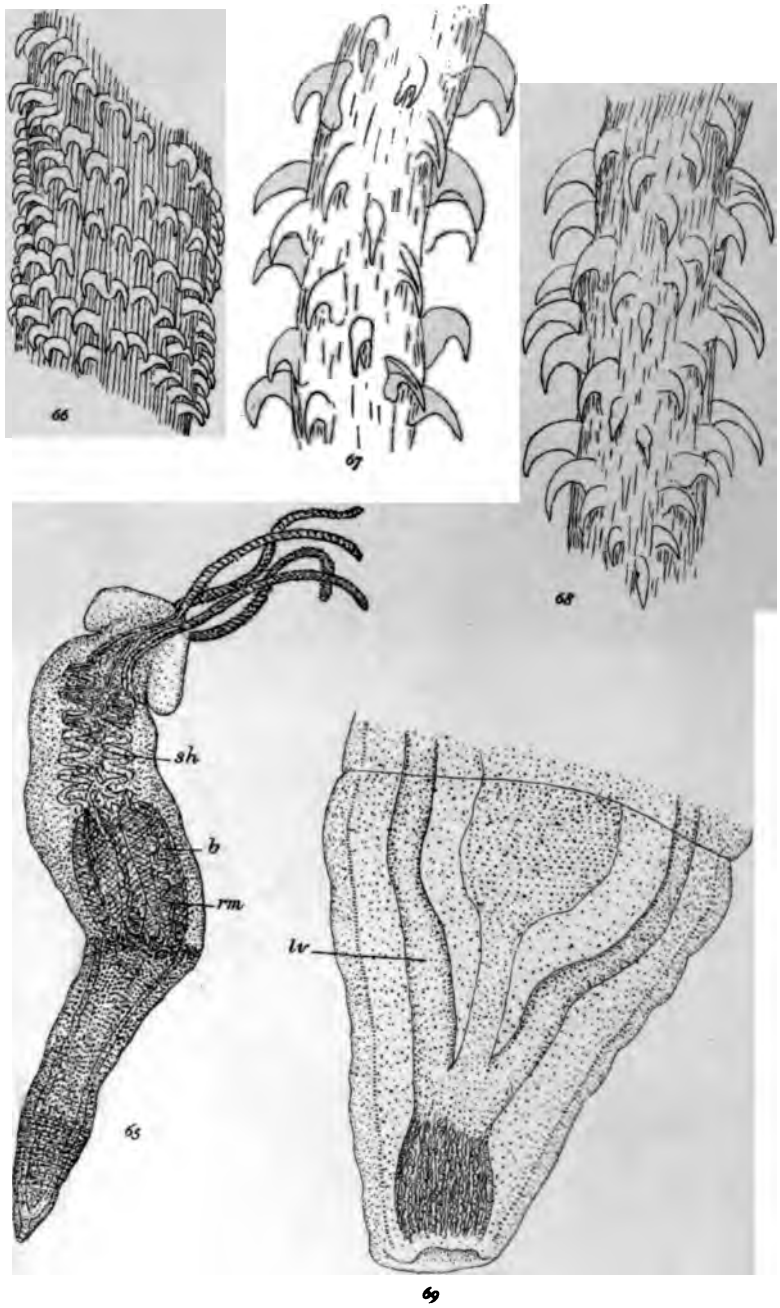

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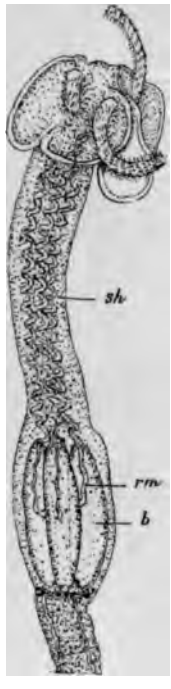
PLATE 10



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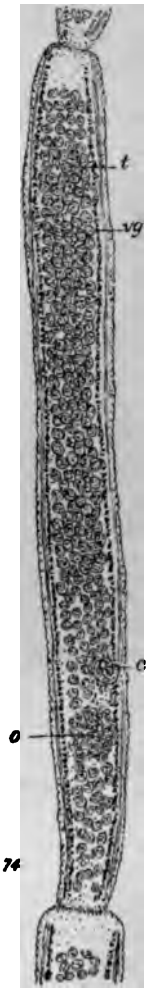

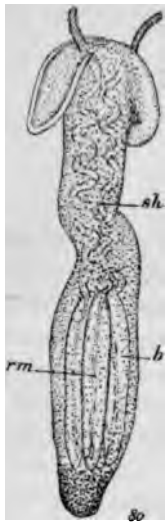

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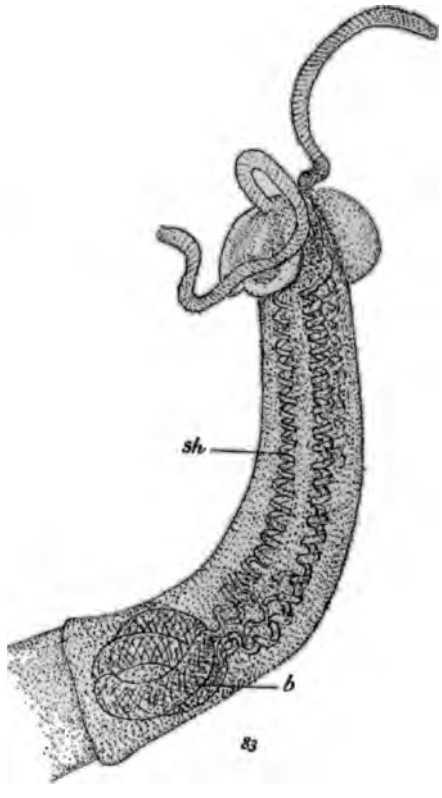

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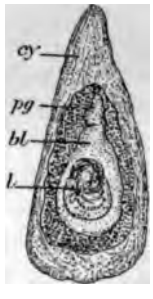

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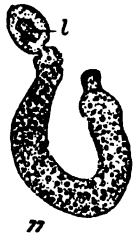
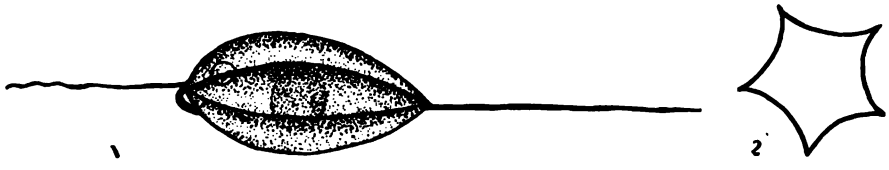


87

A VARIETY OF ANISONEMA VITREA.

By C. H. Edmondson.

Anisonema vitrea (Dujardin) is a flagellated protozoan, elongate-oval in form, the anterior end broadly rounded, the posterior more acutely rounded. An oral groove is present on the ventral surface, and near the anterior end of this groove are inserted two flagella of unequal length. The longer and stouter of the two flagella is curved backwards, being non-vibratile, trailing along behind as the animal advances. The shorter flagellum is directed forward, its vibrations causing the oscillating movement of the organism. A contractile vacuole is present, as is also a spherical nucleus, the latter being central in position.



1 2

Anisonema vitrea is distinguished from other species of the genus by eight furrowed surfaces extending in a slightly spiral manner from one end of the body to the other. This species is a salt-water form and has been observed at Woods Hole by Calkins.

During the summer of 1906, while working on marine Protozoa at the Tortugas, Fla., I made a careful study of a form which, no doubt, should be considered as a variety of the above species and which I would entitle *Anisonema vitrea* (Duj.) var. *pentagona.*

The body of this variety is somewhat shorter and thicker than the species reported from Woods Hole, the Tortugas form measuring 40 μ in length by 30 μ in width. The chief distinction, however, between the species and the variety is that the latter possesses but five longitudinal furrows which are well marked and very deep. In other respects the variety resembles the species.

The eight-furrowed form was not observed at the Tortugas, but the pentagonal variety was one of the most common species, being found abundantly within the moat surrounding Fort Jefferson and also in infusions of gulf-weed.

Reproduction of the organism takes place by longitudinal division.

Figs. 1 and 2 represent lateral and transverse views, respectively.

DEPARTMENT OF MARINE BIOLOGY
OF
CARNEGIE INSTITUTION OF WASHINGTON
ALFRED G. MAYER, DIRECTOR

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I. HABITS, REACTIONS, AND ASSOCIATIONS IN OCYPODA ARENARIA.
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By CHARLES R. STOCKARD.

III. STUDIES OF TISSUE GROWTH: 1. AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF THE RATE OF REGENERATION IN CASSIOPEA XAMACHANA.
By CHARLES R. STOCKARD.

IV. SOME INTERNAL FACTORS CONCERNED WITH THE REGENERATION OF THE CHELÆ OF THE GULF-WEED CRAB.
By CHARLES ZELENY.

V. A CONTRIBUTION TO THE LIFE-HISTORIES OF THE BOOBY AND MAN-O'-WAR BIRD.
By F. M. CHAPMAN.

VI. THE HABITS AND EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF LINERGES MERCURIUS.
By E. G. CONKLIN.

VII. TWO PECULIAR ACTINIAN LARVÆ FROM TORTUGAS, FLORIDA.
By E. G. CONKLIN.

VIII. THE BEHAVIOR OF NODDY AND SOOTY TERNS.
By J. B. WATSON.

IX. AN EXPERIMENTAL FIELD-STUDY OF WARNING COLORATION IN CORAL-REEF FISHES.
By JACOB REIGHARD.

CONTENTS.

	Page.
I. Habits, Reactions, and Associations in *Ocypoda arenaria*. By R. P. Cowles	1–41
II. Habits, Reactions, and Mating Instincts of the "Walking Stick," *Aplopus mayeri*. By Charles R. Stockard	43–59
III. An Experimental Study of the Rate of Regeneration in *Cassiopea xamachana*. By Charles R. Stockard	61–102
IV. Some Internal Factors concerned with the Regeneration of the Chelæ of the Gulf-weed Crab (*Portunus sayi*). By Charles Zeleny	103–138
V. Contribution to the Life-histories of the Booby (*Sula leucogastra*) and Man-o'-war Bird (*Fregata aquila*). By Frank M. Chapman	139–151
VI. The Habits and Early Development of *Lincrges mercurius*. By Edwin G. Conklin	153–170
VII. Two Peculiar Actinian Larvæ from Tortugas, Florida. By Edwin G. Conklin	171–186
VIII. The Behavior of Noddy and Sooty Terns. By John B. Watson	187–255
IX. An Experimental Field-Study of Warning Coloration in Coral-reef Fishes. By Jacob Reighard	257–325

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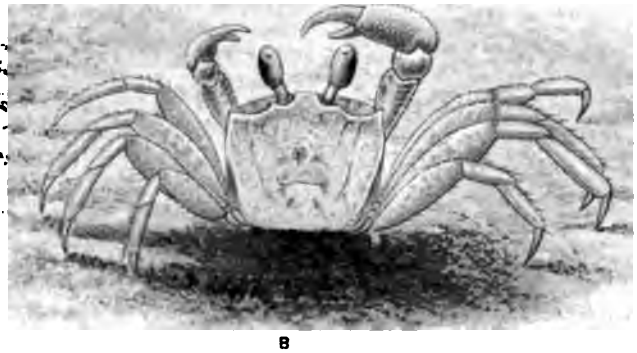

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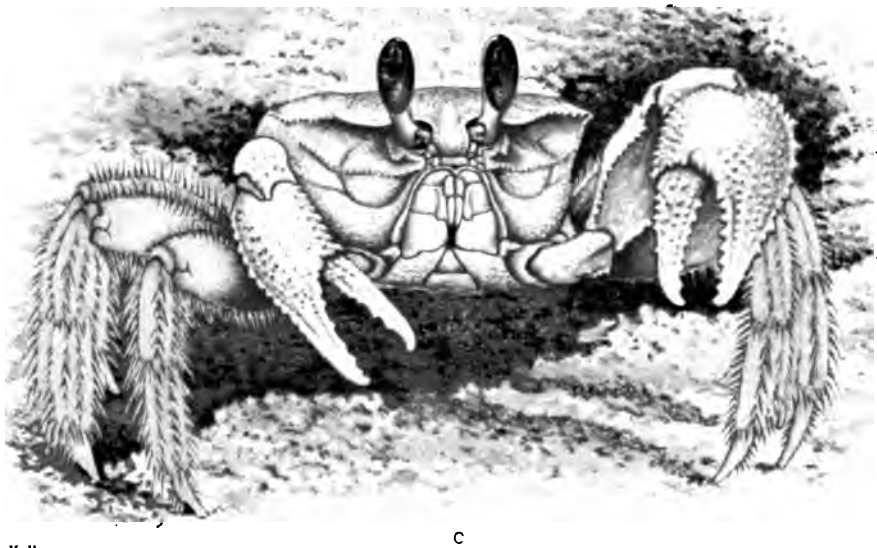

C

C. Kellner.

A. SMALL OCYPODA KEPT IN THE DIFFUSE LIGHT OF THE LABORATORY.

B. SAME SPECIMEN AFTER EXPOSURE TO DIRECT LIGHT FOR 10 MINUTES.

C. ADULT SPECIMEN—NATURAL SIZE.

I. HABITS, REACTIONS, AND ASSOCIATIONS IN OCYPODA ARENARIA.

BY R. P. COWLES,
Instructor in Biology in Johns Hopkins University.

4 plates and 10 text figures.

HABITS, REACTIONS, AND ASSOCIATIONS IN OCYPODA ARENARIA.[1]

By R. P. Cowles.

One of the most interesting crustaceans that inhabits the Atlantic Coast of the more southern States is the brachyuran *Ocypoda arenaria*, the so-called "sand-crab," and no one who sees this lively creature can help marveling at the rapidity and dexterity of its movements as it scampers over the beach sands. While the adult has not been reported north of New Jersey, Verrill (1874) tells us young specimens have been seen by Mr. S. I. Smith at Fire Island, Long Island, by himself at Block Island, Rhode Island, and that the *megalops* larva has been taken in abundance by Mr. Vinal Edwards in Vineyard Sound. Verrill has suggested that ocypodas found in the Northern States are carried there from the South by the Gulf Stream while in the larval condition and that each winter they are killed off by the cold weather, so that they never grow large enough to breed. This supposition seems to be very plausible, since none but half-grown specimens are found in those regions and since breeding occurs in the South at just about the right time to make it possible for larvæ to be carried up in the early spring. The adult has been reported from Cobb Island, Virginia, and it is very common along the sea-beach in the region of North Carolina. It flourishes in the Bahamas, on the sandy keys of Florida, and is found as far south as the coast of Brazil.

During the summers of 1905 and 1906 it was my good fortune to spend a few weeks in the Marine Biological Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington at Loggerhead Key, Florida. On this key specimens of *Ocypoda arenaria* were very abundant, and owing to the small size of the island it was an easy matter to study them at all times of the day while only a short distance from the laboratory. A preliminary report of my observations during the summer of 1905 has been published in the Year Book of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, No. 4, 1905.

My purpose in studying *Ocypoda* was to learn as much as possible concerning its behavior and to determine how far it was able to form associa-

[1] I wish to express my thanks to the Carnegie Institution of Washington and to Dr. A. G. Mayer, Director of the Marine Laboratory at Tortugas, for many courtesies extended to me.

tions. I found a quantitative investigation of this latter point very difficult, owing to the inhibition of normal behavior under artificial conditions, but several experiments showed conclusively that they formed associations.

METHODS.

Much care was taken, while observing the behavior of ocypodas and while experimenting with them, to have the conditions as favorable as possible. For the observation of their normal behavior in nature a white tent was used for a time to conceal the observer, but it was found that this was unnecessary and that they could be studied equally as well from the window of a well-ventilated building built out partly over the water some distance from the laboratory proper. From this window, with the aid of a good pair of bird-glasses, many interesting points in the behavior could be distinctly seen without in any way disturbing the crabs.

The best time of day for watching the ocypodas seemed to be from sun-up until about 11 a. m. and from 5 to 6 p. m. During the middle of the day the adults were usually down in their burrows, but there were often a few of the younger ones out at this time. Individuals were also observed during the night, when one might approach quite closely to them without interrupting their feeding.

A simple trap for collecting ocypodas to be used in experiments was made in the following manner: A deep hole was dug in the sand above the high-tide mark and in it was placed a large dry-goods box without a cover. It was so placed that the open end was flush with the surface of the sand and boards several inches wide were nailed horizontally around the upper edge so as to prevent the crabs from climbing out. On one occasion during the first night 3 individuals were caught; on the next night the number was increased to 6; on the next to 12, and on the next to 24. While in this special case food and water were kept in the trap, it was found at other times that the trap was equally as effective when nothing of this sort was present. Whether the ocypodas dropped into the trap by accident or whether they were attracted there I am unable to say.

BURROWS.

As is well known, *Ocypoda* lives in burrows which it digs in the sand along the seashore. At Loggerhead Key the large majority of the burrows are found on the sloping beach all around the island, extending from the shore-line to 20 or 30 feet from it, but quite often stray ones occur in the interior of the island many feet from the water's edge. During my stay at Loggerhead Key I found several ocypodas living close to the steps of the laboratory, probably for the purpose of picking up stray pieces of refuse which might be thrown from the doors of the station. Around the kitchen, which is situated over the water's edge, the habitations of the crabs were

very numerous, and at certain times of the day large numbers could be seen moving around near it in search of food.

Ocypoda usually makes its burrows on the sloping beach; in some cases, however, they occur on perfectly level ground, and in others, where the beach has been washed away, they are found dug into the vertical surface of the shore. There are three kinds of burrows, all very simple. One consists of a tunnel which is not perfectly straight, extending down into the sand at an angle of about 45° with the surface. This tunnel opens to the exterior at one end, terminates blindly at the other, and has a more or less vertical passage branching off from it and sometimes communicating with the exterior by an opening (see fig. 1). The opening of the vertical passage is

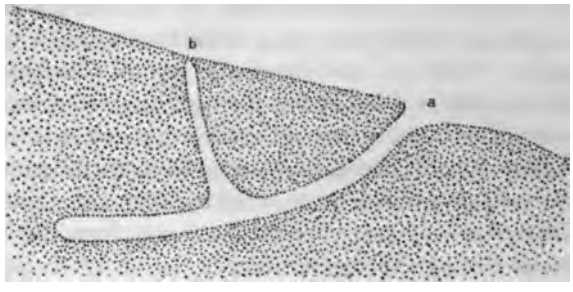

FIG. 1.—Longitudinal vertical section through a burrow with two openings. *a*, entrance; *b*, opening for escape.

always farther away from the water-line than the main tunnel. As a rule these burrows extend directly away from the shore-line, but sometimes they do not exactly. The depth varies considerably, averaging 1 or 2 feet. Another kind of burrow, which occurs higher up on the beach, is like those just mentioned except that it is much deeper and does not have any branching passage. One of these, when carefully followed to its end, was found to extend 4 feet 2.5 inches, ending in coarse, wet sand. It occurred to me that these deep burrows might be used by the females during the breeding season and also that they might be used for molting purposes, but I have no observations to support the truth of these statements. As a matter of fact I have never found females with eggs at the bottom of their burrows, nor have I found casts. It is also true, however, that I have never found the casts on the surface of the ground.

Very young ocypodas make still another kind of burrow which extends vertically downward into the wet sand for only a few inches.

The burrow first described is much more numerous than any other kind and is more interesting on account of the branching passageway connected with it. I have examined many of these burrows in the effort to find the use of the branch. As stated above, sometimes the passage opens to the

exterior and sometimes it does not. In the first case I have found it used only rarely for entrance and exit. As a rule the opening of the branch passage is much smaller than that of the burrow proper and usually there are no tracks leading from the opening of the branch passage, while the sand around the entrance to the burrow is covered with them. These facts seem to indicate that the branch passage is not made for habitual entrance and exit.

It occurred to me that this second opening might be a means of ventilating the burrow, thus making it cooler. There are absolutely no facts to support this theory, especially since it is found that the deep burrows, which would need ventilation if any did, were without these branching passages.

Some light was thrown on the question when an ocypoda was observed digging its burrow. After it had dug for a certain distance, bringing up the sand at regular intervals, it remained down in the burrow for some little time and then suddenly there occurred a disturbance of the surface of sand in about the region where the opening to the second passageway should be. The sand began to sink in a little, but no opening was formed, and it remained in this condition until I dug up the burrow, when it was found that the crab had made a branch passage, starting from the burrow and working up almost to the surface without quite breaking through. Such a procedure was witnessed on more than one occasion, and each time the branch passage did not quite break through to the surface.

After observing this it occurred to me that the passage might be used in time of need to escape from enemies, and I soon witnessed a sight which convinced me that such was the case. One ocypoda was in possession of a burrow with a branching passage, when another appeared at the opening of the burrow. The owner immediately went down and the intruder followed for a short distance and then returned to the opening, followed by the owner. This was repeated several times, the intruder going down farther each time, when suddenly the owner climbed up into the branching passage, broke through the surface and scampered away, leaving the intruder in possession. The two crabs were evidently contending for the possession of the burrow, and it seems probable that when the owner was unable to keep the intruder out it escaped by the only means possible in order to prevent injury to itself when driven to the end of the burrow.

This same procedure was witnessed several times, but occasionally it was varied by the owner going around to the opening of the burrow and driving the intruder up through the branching passage instead of running away after its escape. Frequently this chase in through the burrow opening and out through the branched passage would be continued for some time, making a very ludicrous sight for the observer.

The behavior just mentioned, together with the facts that the opening of the branching passage is usually not made at the same time the passage is, and that there are but few, if any, tracks around the opening, leads me to

believe that it is used for escape by the ocypodas when they are hard pressed. It seems most remarkable that these crabs should often dig the escape passage out almost to the surface without breaking through, thus leaving the place of exit concealed.

While the above description of the burrows applies to the large majority, there is considerable individual variation to be seen both in the construction of the burrow and the manner of doing the work. Some have arched roofs with an almost level floor, and others are almost round in cross-section. While, as has been described, the burrow usually points directly away from the water, there are some that extend obliquely, and in one or two cases burrows have been found which lead toward the water. Some individuals, especially the older ones, finish these burrows carefully, while others do not; some work quickly and others slowly; some start many burrows, but finish none; and many drive individuals out of the burrows they have made and take possession.

As would be expected, *Ocypoda* usually digs its burrow in a place where the sand is firm and damp below the surface. It scratches out a shallow hole with its walking appendages, making it deeper and deeper, until it is unable to simply scratch the sand away, when it begins to carry it out in the following manner (plate 2, fig. A): Using the first and second walking appendages and chelæ of one side, it rakes up quite a good-sized load, holding it firmly between the appendages and the body proper. It then crawls out of the hole and deposits the sand, sometimes throwing it by a quick movement of the chelæ and walking appendages for a distance of almost a foot, sometimes carrying it away 2 feet or more and depositing it quietly, and occasionally dropping it immediately in front of the mouth of the burrow.

As is well known, *Ocypoda* has one chela decidedly larger than the other, and in nearly every case in which an individual was observed making its burrow it went down into the tunnel sideways with the side having the small chela foremost, using that side in the digging and carrying of the sand (fig. 2). Out of 17 cases in which ocypodas were observed going down into their holes, after the burrow was constructed, the side with the small claw led the way 16 times. The small-chela side is undoubtedly better adapted for digging, which may account for this phenomenon. Furthermore, under these conditions the crab is better protected from any enemy which may come down after it, since its large fighting chela is presented to the intruder.

On some occasions I have noticed individuals lying on their backs in the tunnels digging away at the roof, and this is probably the manner in which the vertical passage is started.

Many ocypodas exhibit considerable care in the construction of their burrows, especially the entrance to them. Sometimes, when the approach to the opening is quite steep, the crab will pile the sand that it brings from the

burrow in front of the opening and then very carefully tamp it down, the broad surface of its large chela and the distal segments of the wa legs. Sometimes, if there is a small hollow in the surface, it will drag from another place into the hollow and press it down. Often an oc will carefully tamp the sand that it has thrown away, for a radius of a foot, and frequently it will smooth off the edges of the opening int burrow. Almost invariably, unless startled, before an individual goes into a burrow, either while constructing it or after, it will halt for some time, apparently surveying the region around to see if there are an truders about.

A most interesting performance that I have frequently observed closing of the burrow. This usually occurs after the crab has stocked it food. Upon several occasions I have thrown a number of small fish individual, each one of which was carried down and deposited at the end of the tunnel. Then the crab would gather up a load of sand from

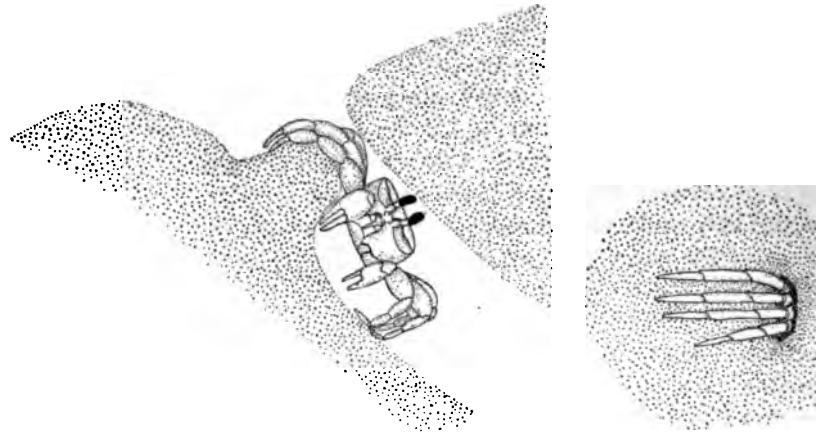

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FIG. 2.—Diagrammatic longitudinal section through burrow which an *Ocypoda* is ging up.

FIG. 3.—View of plug from above, showing ambulatory appendages tamping surf plug; mouth reduced to small hole.

side the burrow, draw it into the entrance, pressing it firmly on one si the opening (fig. 2). After this it would come out of the half-c entrance, take up another load of sand, return and enter, drawing the after it. This load would be placed alongside of the other and v practically close up the entrance, leaving, however, the distal joints of se of the walking legs outside. With these the ocypoda would carefully down the plug now formed and finally quickly draw them in, leaving s times only a very small hole and sometimes none at all (fig. 3). By means the entrance to the burrow was very effectually concealed.

Sometimes, when individuals are disturbed by other crabs or by man

A

B

C

A. Ocypoda carrying sand from burrow.

B. Ocypoda feeding.

C. Defensive attitude "Aufbäum" reflex.
½ natural size.

will run into their burrows for a few inches and push a plug of sand up from below, completely closing the entrance.

It seems probable that not more than one ocypoda at a time makes a burrow its home, unless during the breeding season, although I have seen as many as three emerge from a single hole. Most of the burrows are not permanent living-places, since they are usually made below high tide. Individuals often drive one another out of their burrows, and the successful one usually appropriates the new home that it has won; on several occasions three in succession have been seen to gain possession of the same burrow.

BREEDING SEASON.

The breeding season of *Ocypoda* was practically at an end when I visited Tortugas in June, but my own observations and those of others lead me to believe that it occurs probably in the spring and early summer rather than throughout the summer, as suggested in my preliminary report. During the late summer of 1906 I examined many female specimens, but only in a few cases did I find any eggs, and these were always few in number, suggesting the last of a brood. Mr. Kellner, who was at Tortugas as early as March, states that at that time large ocypodas were quite scarce, but that very little ones were quite numerous. Later, however, according to his observations, the adults began to appear again, so that in June they were present in considerable numbers. It seems very probable that farther north along the Atlantic Coast the breeding season is somewhat later.

There is scarcely any difference in appearance between the male and female ocypodas, except in the shape of the abdominal segments (plate 3) and the abdominal appendages. The females, however, are usually clean-looking and less scarred than the males. Both have the stridulating ridge, of which I shall have something to say later (page 28).

During the time that I was at Loggerhead Key the males seemed to be much more in evidence than the females. In nearly every case when burrows were dug up and individuals were found inside they were males. The traps also always showed a larger number of males than females.

FOOD AND FEEDING.

Ocypoda is often found feeding during the daytime, but more especially at night (plate 2, fig. B). It is also a cannibal, and to test this characteristic a small trap was stocked with many small individuals measuring from 1 to 2 cm. across the carapace. During the night two larger individuals, about 4 cm. across the carapace, dropped into the trap and in the morning most of the small ones were found torn to pieces, with the soft parts eaten out. It is interesting to note that when a trap is set only large individuals are found as a rule in the morning. In a trap which had caught 30 ocypodas during several nights no small ones were found, and it seems probable that they

do not enter on account of the presence of the adults. If they drop in by chance they are almost always killed and eaten. Among the many different kinds of food that *Ocypoda* will eat are cocoanut, sea-weed, bread, turtle-meat, fish, coffee-grounds, potatoes, ham fat, and jelly-fish. Bebe, in his article on "Birds of Cobb Island," states that the sand-crab eats bird's eggs, and Verrill (1874) has found that it feeds upon *Talochestia longicornis* and *T. megalophthalma.* When the dead body of a fish which has been washed ashore is too large to be carried away by an ocypoda, it is apt to build a burrow by the side of the fish and feed on it day after day. Dr. Mayer has observed that when *Physalia* are driven up on the beach the same thing occurs, and then there is usually only one burrow to each *Physalia.*

Ocypodas are great scavengers and keep the beach almost free from decomposing animal and vegetable matter, but there are a few things that they will not eat; one of these is the lime. Pieces of this acid fruit thrown to them are seized immediately, but one "taste" seems to be sufficient. They immediately begin to rub the lime in the sand, apparently trying to get rid of a substance that irritates the sensory organs of the mouth. There is no doubt that this crab reacts more strongly to certain kinds of foods than to others.

While feeding ocypodas usually congregate along the drift-line of the beach, but as far as I have observed they never enter the water for the purpose of seizing food.

During the summer large schools of *Atherina laticeps* (sardine of the Gulf) are almost always found close to the shore of Loggerhead Key and they are an important food for *Ocypoda* (plate 2, fig. B). These small fish were frequently used in feeding experiments. Feeding was observed both while individuals were in captivity and while they were under natural conditions. The eyes do not seem to play an important part in the detection of food, although they undoubtedly serve to lead the crabs to objects which may be food. When atherinas are thrown near an ocypoda (the observer being concealed), the "sand-crab" usually jumps and runs toward the former as though it "knew" the fish were food, but, as we shall see from other experiments, this is probably not the case. As soon as the fish is reached the *Ocypoda* touches it with the claws and then immediately grabs it. As a rule the *Atherina* is carried at once into a burrow, but often (especially in case of the first few specimens) it is pinched with the claws, which are then rubbed against the first pair of maxilla situated at the mouth opening. Usually this process is repeated several times, alternating one claw with the other, until finally the crab has succeeded in introducing some of the juice into the mouth. Then it may hold the fish in one claw, using the other to tear off pieces and to transfer them to the mouth-parts, or it may grab the fish with either end directed toward the mouth, gnawing on it with the mouth-parts. Frequently the *Ocypoda* begins by picking out the eyes of the *Atherina* and eating them.

Whether one calls it taste or chemical sense, there is no doubt that *Ocypoda* is able to distinguish between foods. When several different kinds of food are presented to a number of individuals, certain kinds will be eaten in preference to others.

A rather interesting experiment was one where the feeding was observed in the case of an individual from which the small chela had been cut off close to the body. This specimen seemed to have great difficulty in adjusting a fish so that it could be eaten. An attempt was made to use the first ambulatory appendage on the side from which the chela had been removed, but the crab was not very successful in this, and after many trials it hit upon the following method: The fish was grasped about in the middle with the large chela in such a manner that the end was directed toward the mouth, and in this position feeding was accomplished with some difficulty. It would push the end of the atherina up against the mouth-parts, where the mandibles would take hold and then pull the fish away, thus tearing off pieces which could be eaten. This was repeated many times on different occasions.

Occasionally the "sand-crab" did not seem to be able to adjust the fish according to this method, and then holding the atherina with its one chela tightly against the sand, it tipped the body downward until the mouth-parts were in contact with the fish, when it proceeded to feed as usual.

"OLFACTORY ORGANS."

Nagel (1894) and Bethe (1895, 1897) have studied the crustacean *Carcinus mænas* in the endeavor to find out in how far this crab makes use of the senses of smell and taste, or, as these have been called together, the "chemical sense." Both of these investigators have concluded that *Carcinus* in its search for food is aided by the chemical sense, and Bethe has gone so far as to say that the chemical stimuli are the principal ones that lead the crab to food, the eyes aiding only slightly or none at all. The experiments devised and the observations made, as recorded below, were for the purpose of determining if *Ocypoda* would react to foods at a distance through other senses than that of sight.

The so-called "olfactory organs" of *Ocypoda* are situated on the antennæ, which are very much reduced in size (plate 4, fig. c). They consist of the typical "olfactory hairs," which are open at the distal end and which have a nerve running part way up the axis. These hairs are not as numerous as the feathered tactile hairs which occur in a large bunch on the segment next to the basal segment of the antenna.

Dr. Mayer observed that ocypodas dug up decomposing fish which had been placed about the roots of young pineapple-plants, but this does not prove that the odor attracted them, for it is quite probable that the juices or small particles of the fish were left on the surface of the sand and that the ocypodas in their wanderings and search for food happened to pass over these places.

Several experiments were devised to determine if *Ocypoda* would react to odors, and although the results were not conclusive they were of some interest.

Experiment 1.—Pieces of coral and small fish (*Atherina*) were dropped alternately near a crab. They ran for each and often carried the coral as well as the fish away with them. Precaution was not taken, however, to have the pieces of coral free from the odor of fish.

Experiment 2.—Atherinas soaked in carbon disulphide were thrown to the crabs and these were at once seized in all cases and carried into the burrows. As far as could be observed this ill-smelling liquid had no effect on the ocypodas.

Experiment 3.—Poured aqua ammonia down a burrow containing a crab. This burrow had two openings and a strong odor of ammonia came up through the second opening, showing that it penetrated through the entire burrow. This did not cause the crab to come out of its burrow until 10 minutes at least had passed, when it came out unaffected, as far as could be observed.

Experiment 4.—An atherina was wrapped in several thicknesses of newspaper, the ends being left open and care taken not to get fish juice on the newspaper. (The paper extended an inch beyond the fish at both ends.) This was then wrapped in Swiss book, tied at the middle, and dropped near the opening of a burrow. The crab soon came out, pinched it, and attempted to bite it at the open end. It seemed to react as it would toward an unconcealed fish, and it is not probable that the juices of the fish came in contact with the mouth-parts. Finally the package was taken down into the burrow, which was then closed up.

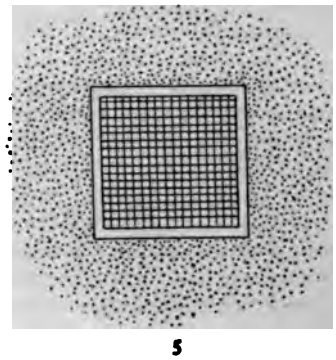
The same experiment was repeated, substituting a roll of newspaper for the fish and wrapping with Swiss book as in the former case. This package was then dropped and was almost at once grabbed and pinched, but soon left as though there were nothing attractive about it.

Experiment 5.—In this experiment a bowl-like hole was dug and atherinas were put in the bottom of it. They were then covered over with a layer of sand about an inch thick, so that they could not be seen, but so that the odor could be detected by the experimenter. A screen made of ¼-inch-mesh wire was then put over the excavation, so that the crabs could not reach the fish without digging under. Great care was taken not to allow the juices of the fish to get on the screen or the sand surrounding it. At the expiration of 10 hours the ocypodas had not made an attempt to dig down to the fish. There were many tracks on the sand, however, showing that the crabs had been examining the region. A crab was observed crawling over the screen, pinching the wires of the same and then rubbing its chela over the mouth-parts, which behavior is typical of the feeding reaction. This was repeated by the same crab, and seems to afford strong indications that *Ocypoda* may react to food at a distance through some other sense than those of sight or contact (figs. 4 and 5).

Experiment 6.—A young ocypoda which had not been fed for a day was used in this experiment. The eyes were painted with a mixture of shellac and lampblack, so that they did not react to shadows or to the movements of the hand near it. A fresh atherina was held within about 2 or 3 mm. from the mouth-parts for about 3 minutes. So far as could be seen the crab did

not react. There was no movement of the antennæ, such as Bethe (1895, 1897) has observed when a piece of meat is held near the mouth-parts, but when the fish was touched against one of the chelæ the ocypoda immediately jumped at it, took hold, pinched it, and put its chela up against its mouth-parts, after which it began to eat. There is nothing in the behavior of the crab in this experiment which proves that *Ocypoda* reacts to odors. However, the rapidity with which it determined that the object was food after the chela was touched leads me to believe that it had been stimulated by the odor of the fish before the chela was touched and that it inhibited the reaction on account of the abnormal conditions to which it was subjected. It is true that the fleshy consistency of the fish may have been a food-determining factor.

4



5

Figures illustrating experiment 5. Fig. 4, vertical section; fig. 5, seen from above.

In the following experiments an attempt was made to find out from how great a distance *Ocypoda* would react to food. A square 9.5 inches by 9.5 inches, divided up into 64 smaller and equal squares, was marked out on the sloping beach in a region where it could be seen by the experimenter while he was practically concealed about 10 feet above the sand in a house nearby. Small pieces of decomposing fish about 1.5 c.cm. in volume, fragments of coral, and pieces of black glass were used to attract the crabs.

Experiment A.—A piece of fish was placed at the center of the square, as shown in fig. 6. An ocypoda came to point A_1 and began to make a burrow. After a few digs it went straight for the center of the square (A_2) and grabbed the fish with no hesitation. The wind was blowing in the direction shown[1] and the meat was on the surface of the ground. An important condition in this experiment, as we shall see in another section, was that flies were moving about on the meat and frequently flying to and away from it.

Experiment B.—The conditions in this experiment were the same as in Experiment A and the results were the same except that the crab stopped at B_2 for 2 or 3 seconds while on its way to the meat.

While the crab in these two experiments may have reacted to the odor of the fish, the eyes undoubtedly received a stimulus that determined the movement toward the food.

Experiment C.—A piece of fish meat was placed in the center of the square. A crab 2.5 feet from the center (C_1) went directly to the meat

[1] In experiments A to J the wind was blowing across the square from the upper left-hand corner to the lower right-hand corner.

- [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

hardly be explained in any other way, and, as we shall see below, the movement of objects has an important influence on the behavior of *Ocypoda.*

Experiment H.—A piece of decomposing fish was placed in a hole at the center of the square, the hole was filled up and the surface then smoothed off. The observer then left, but after 30 minutes returned and found that a crab had dug the fish out and carried it away. Considerable precaution was taken to prevent the surface sand from touching the fish or its juices, so that the indications are that the ocypoda found the food through the stimulus of odor, the eyes not aiding in its detection.

Experiment I.—In this experiment a piece of decomposing fish was fastened to the end of a stick, which was then stuck in the sand, so that the meat was 60 cm. from the ground. A crab ran up to the stick, pinched it, and tried to reach higher than usual with its chelæ, but was unsuccessful in what appeared to be an attempt to get the fish. After this the crab returned to its burrow and did not go back again.

Experiment J.—The conditions were the same as those of Experiment I, except that the stick was pushed down into the sand until the fish was 4 cm. from the surface of the ground. Flies were thickly clustered about the food when a crab approached. This individual did not reach up and take the fish, but made an attack by jumping quickly at the food, striking it with its claws and jumping away, after which it moved off quite a distance. Then the ocypoda repeated this same behavior several times, until the flies were scared away, when finally it reached up, standing on the last two pairs of walking appendages, and began to eat. The stick was then raised again until the fish was 50 cm. from the sand, after which the same crab returned, but did not reach up. The fish was soon abandoned. Several times during the afternoon a small crab attempted to climb up, *i. e.*, put its claws against the side of the stick and raised itself, but was never successful in reaching the food.

While it can hardly be claimed that any of the above experiments furnish conclusive proof that *Ocypoda* is stimulated by odor, experiments 5 and H point strongly in that direction. The behavior in most of the rest of the experiments may be explained by any one of the following hypotheses: (1) That *Ocypoda* reacts to odor. (2) That opaque objects are distinguished as a result of the difference between the intensity of light on the object and the region surrounding. (3) That *Ocypoda* actually has vision. (4) That any two or all of these factors determine the behavior.

As we shall see later, the author was unable to obtain any evidence that *Ocypoda* has vision. It might be held by those who do not admit that crustacea see with their eyes or react to odors, that *Ocypoda* approaches food and other objects merely by chance, but those who have observed this interesting crab can not for one moment believe this to be the case.

EYES.

Anyone who, for the first time, sees an ocypoda running over the white sand is forcibly impressed by the prominent and relatively large stalked eyes which, being almost black in color, form a striking contrast to the rest of

the body. Who has not been tempted to say, when he walks along the beach and sees these crabs in the far distance scampering in haste toward their burrows, that they have a keen sense of vision? Thus far, however, we have no proof that crustacea have vision—that definite pictures, such as we know are formed in the eyes of the higher vertebrates, occur in the eyes of these invertebrates.

The stalked eyes of *Ocypoda* are capable of considerable movement. They may be dropped laterally into grooves under the anterior edge of the carapace, where they are quite well protected. Besides this lateral movement I have noticed individuals move the eye-stalks backwards and forwards while sitting perfectly still on a level surface. It is of interest to note that individuals when starting down their burrows (they always go down sideways) drop the foremost eye-stalk into the groove under the carapace, leaving the hindmost one erect. The advantage of this procedure can easily be seen. When the eyes are erect the angle of possible movement toward the sagittal plane of the body is very small, so that in going down the burrow, if the eye-stalk were kept erect there would be danger of its being forcibly bent or broken off by striking against the walls of the burrow. The hindmost eye-stalk, however, does not run this danger. Furthermore, it is not probable that the crab receives any very definite light stimuli through the eye on the side presented to the dark end of the burrow, while the other eye undoubtedly serves as a means of detecting any lessening of the intensity of light at the opening of the burrow which might be caused by the approach of an enemy.

In *Ocypoda* the part of the eye sensitive to light extends over quite a large surface and covers much of the distal end of the stalk. It is not evenly distributed; the largest surface exposed is on the anterior side; the next largest is on the outer sides; the next on the posterior side and the smallest is on the dorsal surface (fig. 7). This distribution of the sensitive surface corresponds with the attitudes commonly assumed when a crab is watching. In the majority of cases it presents either the entire surface or the side of the body toward the object in question; less frequently the posterior surface. The dorsal surface of the eye which has the smallest sensitive surface is no doubt used the least, since no enemies approach from above and since the food is on the ground. As we shall see below, this crab seldom reacts to the movements of objects directly above it.

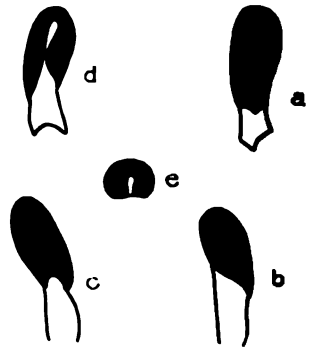


FIG. 7.—Surface of eye of *Ocypoda*. *a*, anterior view; *b*, posterior view; *c*, outer side; *d*, inner side; *e*, dorsal side.

Ocypoda Arenaria. Female above. Male below. Ventral views.

The so-called compensatory movements of the eye-stalks, such as have been described for other Crustacea, occur in *Ocypoda* when it is tilted either from right to left or anteriorly and posteriorly. The angle in the latter case, however, is quite small. It was noticed that when an individual was tilted forward or backward until the limit of movement was reached the eye-stalks were immediately lowered into their sockets. Another interesting observation was the following: When an ocypoda was picked up, the normal position with reference to the ground being maintained, it almost invariably dropped the eyes into the grooves, but when the crab was lowered again the eyes were raised as soon as the legs were allowed to touch the ground. In these experiments I kept hold of the crab even after it had been placed on the floor. Occasionally the eyes were raised in mid-air, not while moving up or down, however. The eyes are usually drawn down into the sockets when they are touched by the experimenter, and in the case of some individuals it was found that the same behavior was brought about when the crab was scratched with a pointed instrument along the middle of the carapace. There is considerable variation among different individuals with respect to the reaction from scratching, but in the same individual the result is quite constant.

Ocypoda lives along wind-swept shores and the wind seems to have no ill effect on the eyes. Even in a strong gale the eyes are seen standing erect, apparently unaffected. An attempt was made to cause individuals to lower the eye-stalks by blowing suddenly and sharply upon them, but it was not successful. In the case of the land-crab (*Gecarcinus*) the eyes were dropped immediately when the same experiment was tried upon them. It was found, however, that when an ocypoda was brought close up to the mouth of the experimenter and warm air was gently breathed on the eyes they were immediately drawn into the sockets. They remained erect when the crab was brought close up to the mouth without breathing on them.

There is no doubt that *Ocypoda* can distinguish a large object, such as a person, many yards off (at least 50 yards), as any one can testify who has seen these crabs run away on the approach of man. By this statement it is not meant that this crab has vision, that it sees things as human beings do, although I would not deny the possibility of imperfect pictures being formed on their eyes, but that its eyes are sensitive to changes in intensity of light and that it is able to see the outlines of objects where the contrast in the amount of light reflected by the object and that reflected by the surroundings is great enough.

While *Ocypoda* can see objects which are not moving, as the experiments D and E prove and as frequent observations of individuals approaching objects indicate, its behavior shows that the eyes are much more sensitive to objects in motion.

The following interesting performance, which was witnessed from the window of a laboratory built partly on the beach and partly out in the water, shows how well *Ocypoda* reacts to moving objects. One of the most

common fish around the shores of Loggerhead Key is the gray snapper, *Lutianus griseus,* which patrols the waters close to the bank in search of food. Besides this rather large fish there are also schools of a very much smaller fish mentioned above, *Atherina laticeps.* These two species ordinarily occupy rather definite positions with reference to the shore line, the atherinas close in and the gray snapper farther out. The latter, however, prey upon the former and frequently make excursions shoreward, driving the atherinas into the surf and finally out of the water upon the beach, where they flop about helplessly. During the chase the gray snappers often flounder in the surf, making considerable noise. When this occurs, almost immediately ocypodas, if there are any out on the beach, run down and capture the little fish, returning with them to their burrows. They travel fast and in a straight line to their prey, leaving no doubt in the mind of the observer that the eyes are stimulated by the movements of the atherina.

I have frequently brought about this same reaction by throwing small fish from the window of the laboratory upon the sand below, in which case the behavior would be the same as above, showing that the noise produced by the gray snapper in the surf is not the only stimulus, if it is any at all, that attracts the crabs.

It might be claimed that the ocypodas reacted to the odor of the fish, but this is probably not the case, since the olfactory sense is not very well developed and since, when pieces of coral are substituted for fish, the behavior is the same up to a certain point. They will run directly to the coral, often pick it up, but seldom take it to the burrow.

In order to thoroughly test the influence of odor in the throwing experiments the hands were thoroughly washed and ten clean chips of wood were taken in the left hand and ten fish in the right hand. These were then thrown alternately to the crab, with the result that the chips were run after as if they were food. They were always examined, but not taken away.

To prove that the ocypodas did not react through the tactile sense as a result of the jarring of the sand when the objects were thrown upon it, another experiment was tried. An atherina was tied to a long thread and was thrown from the window in such a way that it would come within about 10 cm. of the sand, but would not touch it. Immediately an individual would run directly toward the fish, but finding nothing on the ground would attempt to capture the shadow cast by the fish. Failing in this the ocypoda would usually remain still for some little time, apparently watching, and would then make another jump at the shadow. After several trials, during which it would move away some distance and then return, the crab would go back to its burrow or begin feeding along the drift line. If then the bait was drawn up and after an interval of one or two minutes, was thrown again, the same behavior would be repeated by the original individual. Finally, if the experiment were repeated many times the crab would no longer react by running toward the shadow.

The results of these experiments and observations leave little doubt that in Experiment F the movement of flies around the coral was a factor in determining the behavior of the crab.

The eyes of *Ocypoda* are stimulated much more strongly by moving objects and probably also by still objects on days when the sun is shining brightly than when it is cloudy; also much more during the middle of the day than early in the morning or late at night. It was found that the approach of man on cloudy days did not cause the crabs to retreat to their burrows as quickly as on days when the sun was shining brightly; also that they did not run as promptly after fish thrown to them early in the morning or late in the afternoon as they did after those thrown during the brighter part of the day.

During the night-time it was found that *Ocypoda* would easily approach a man lying on the sand and even crawl up upon him. The writer has had them enter his pockets and on several occasions has received their rather severe pinches. They show but little fear at night, when the contrast in intensity of light on objects is small, but in the day-time such behavior does not occur or at least very seldom.

Bethe (1895, 1897) has observed that when a light is directed against the eye of *Carcinus mœnas*, or when a dark object is placed in front of the eye, the crab reacts by a movement of the first pair of antennæ. Such a movement does not take place in the case of *Ocypoda*, but it was found that when a dish containing several individuals was brought from the direct sunlight outside of the laboratory into the subdued light inside, they reacted by a sudden jump the moment the shadow of the door was reached and that when the dish was taken out they reacted again in the same manner as soon as the edge of the shadow was reached. After the change had been made rapidly and many times the crabs failed to react, but after allowing them to rest for a few minutes and then repeating the experiment the individuals began again to react.

While the anterior, posterior, outer lateral, and inner lateral surfaces are sensitive to the differences in intensity of light, the dorsal surface does not seem to be, or at least only slightly so (fig. 7). The writer was able to stand during the middle of the day at the open window of the laboratory mentioned in a previous section, without disturbing the crabs below in the least; not even the most exaggerated motions, such as the swinging of the arms or the waving of large objects, would cause them to run to their burrows or even move away. This was not a case of inhibition, for the same movements performed on the sand by the experimenter at the same distance, or a much greater distance, always caused a run for shelter.

Many attempts were made to study the behavior of *Ocypoda* after the eyes were cut off, but they would not live long enough after the operation to recover sufficiently from the shock. Much care was used in amputating the eyes, but in no case was it possible to keep the individuals alive for more

than three days. The base of the eye-stalks is undoubtedly one of the most vital spots, and it is probably true that in nature the eyes are never pinched off without causing death.

I have seen many hundred ocypodas both at Loggerhead Key and Beaufort, North Carolina, and while I have often found specimens with one of the chelæ or one or two of the ambulatory appendages missing, I have never seen an individual with even one eye gone. Those ocypodas that had both eyes cut off did not react in any way to light or shadow cast upon them, and there is scarcely any doubt that the eyes are the only organs that are sensitive. Notwithstanding the severe shock resulting from the amputation of the eyes, individuals were often found that would be feeding at the end of 24 hours.

The effect of painting the eyes with a mixture of lampblack, shellac, and chloroform was also tried. When several coatings of this mixture were put on, these organs were not sensitive to light. It was found that immediately after the painting individuals were quiet, but that very soon they became more active and assumed the defensive attitude (plate 1, fig. c). As Bethe (1895, 1897) has observed in the case of *Carcinus*, they were well able to protect themselves from normal individuals. On land they were much more sensitive to tactile stimuli than ordinarily, and in the aquarium they were much more sensitive to the vibrations of the water produced by striking the glass than normal ocypodas.

The angle of compensation when a crab was tilted was somewhat less than the normal, confirming the observations of Clark (1896) and Prentiss (1901) for the fiddler-crab and those of Lyon (1899) for the crayfish. The blackening of the eyes seemed to have no effect on the maintenance of equilibrium and did not prevent the ocypodas from running about in a normal manner when stimulated.

The most evident change in the behavior under these abnormal conditions was the lack of reaction to a sudden increase or decrease in the intensity of light, the absence of any reaction to moving objects and the failure to approach objects as they ordinarily do when the eyes are not painted.

Several experiments were tried to determine if the eye of *Ocypoda* reacted to one color more than to another. For this 18 atherinas were used; 6 were stained red, 6 were stained blue, and the rest were left unstained. These were thrown alternately to an ocypoda, but there was no special difference in the behavior toward the different ones.

An attempt was made to see if they would form an association between colors and food made distasteful in some way. Many experiments using stained atherinas soaked in the acid juice of the lime were tried, but these did not give any results indicating an association of color with distasteful food.

Quite a number of experiments with red and violet color-filters made of celloidin were tried, but these yielded no definite results.

In conclusion it may be said that the eyes of *Ocypoda* are the most highly developed of crustacean eyes; that they are stimulated by differences in the intensity of light when these are large enough; that they are quite sensitive in this respect; that they do not react to different colors; that they aid much in the search for food, in the detection of enemies, and in the accuracy of locomotion. My observations and experiments afford no proof that *Ocypoda* has vision, such as exists in the human eye, but its behavior leads me to believe the eyes are so well developed that it almost amounts to the same thing. While they probably do not see the color of an object or the finer characters of its surface, they undoubtedly see its outlines and possibly some of the more evident irregularities of the surface, made evident by the differences in lighting.

COLOR-CHANGES.

It has long been well-known that some species of Crustacea change in color when placed under different conditions, but these observations seem to be almost entirely confined to those forms that live in the water. Certain species of *Hippolyte, Palæmon, Crangon, Idothea, Nika, Gammarus,* and others have been studied, but as far as I know observations on the color changes of only one of the Brachyura have been made.

Color changes or pigment migrations have been investigated in the vertebrate skin, especially that of lizards and frogs, in the hypodermis of crustaceans, in the retina of vertebrates, crustaceans, insects, and cephalopods. Various causes have been suggested which might produce these changes, such as light, heat, color environment, emotional states, and other nervous conditions.

The carapace of *Ocypoda* is very lightly colored and shows practically no color-pattern. Any pigment which it does contain apparently undergoes no change when exposed to different intensities of light and heat, but the hypodermis underneath is rich in dark pigment-cells. As the carapace is almost colorless, and is translucent, the pigment-cells of the hypodermis, arranged in the form of a pattern, show through very plainly under certain conditions.

The writer had been observing ocypodas and experimenting with them for a considerable period before it was seen that the color-pattern under the carapace changed from time to time, although it was often noticed that some individuals had a definite pattern, while others were almost free from it. This lack of color in some specimens was supposed to be due to the fact that they had recently molted, until finally, while testing the effect of different color-screens on the behavior of *Ocypoda,* new light was thrown on the subject. In this experiment 4 ocypodas were placed in a box which had colored windows made of gelatin. After being confined for about an hour they were taken out and by chance placed in a dish of cool sea-water where, much to my surprise, they began to turn dark, showing a very distinct color-

pattern. Three of these were then put in a glass dish and placed in the direct sunlight on the white sand. Ten minutes later these had lost nearly all their color, showing almost no markings. The other one was kept in the diffuse light of the laboratory and did not change in color. It had the same dark pattern the next day. These observations left no doubt that the color-pattern under the carapace was subject to considerable change when placed under different conditions of light, heat, or moisture, and experiments were then undertaken to determine what factors brought this change about.

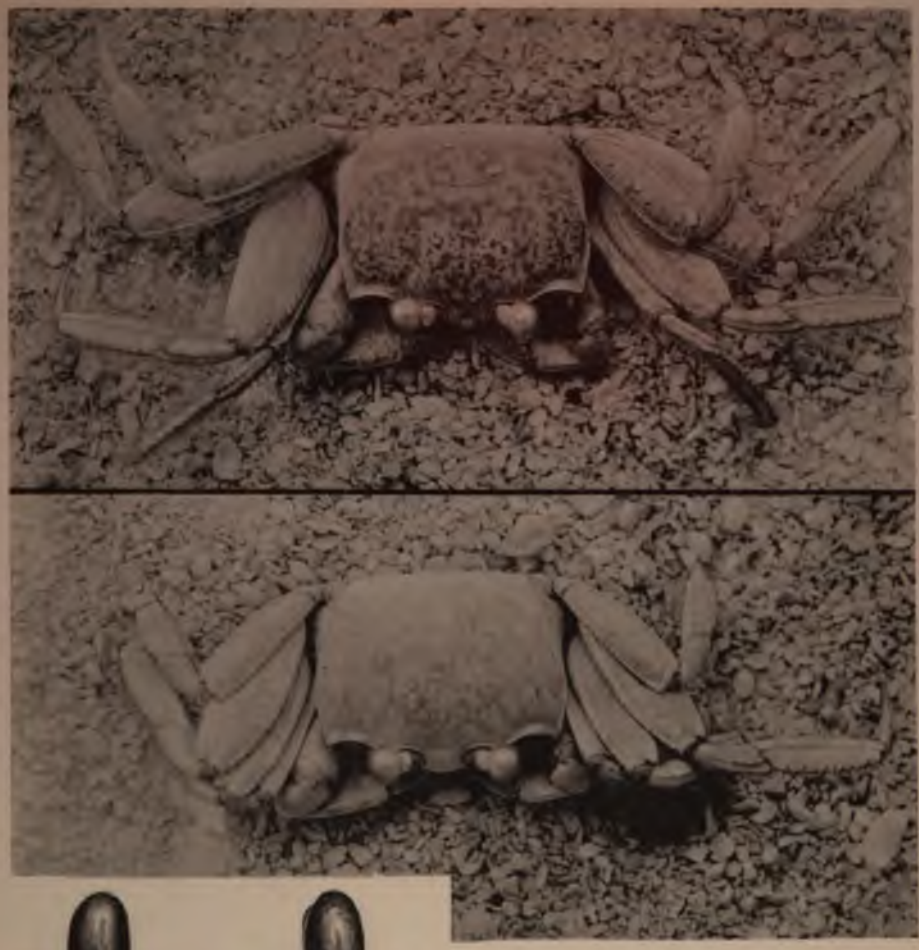
Experiment I.—Three small ocypodas, quite light in color, were taken from the trap and placed in the box with colored windows at 3^h 15^m p. m. The box was kept in the bright light near a window until 4^h 50^m p. m., when it was found that the crabs had not changed in color. So far as these experiments were concerned there was no indication that the colored windows had anything to do with the formation of a color-pattern. However, it is not claimed that careful experiments with color-screens might not show that certain parts of the spectrum may be more effective in bringing about color changes than others. After the specimens were removed from the box they were put into sea-water and kept in the laboratory, where they began to turn dark at once. They were then removed to a dry dish, where they continued to grow darker.

Experiment II.—Two rather dark ocypodas were exposed to the direct sunlight for 15 minutes and became very light in color. They were then put into a dish of sea-water and placed in a rather shaded part of the laboratory (8^h 12^m a. m.). A dark plaid pattern soon made its appearance, after which the crabs were put in the direct sunlight on the white sand still immersed in sea-water (8^h 22^m a. m.). At 8^h 30^m a. m. they were much lighter in color and at 8^h 49^m a. m. they were almost colorless. The specimens were then put in a photographic dark-room (8^h 50^m a. m.), still immersed in sea-water. To my surprise (believing at the time that bright light was the cause of blanching) at 10^h 45^m a. m. they were still almost colorless. However, upon being put in a dry dish and placed in a shaded part of the laboratory, they became dark after a few minutes.

These experiments show that the appearance and disappearance of the color-pattern is not a simple process, but that it may be brought about by one or several factors.

Experiment III.—In this experiment the same individual was used that was kept in the laboratory in Experiment I. It was dark in color. It was immersed in sea-water and exposed to the direct sunlight (8 a. m.). At 8^h 23^m a. m. the specimen had not changed in color to any appreciable degree and at 8^h 30^m a. m. it was possibly a little lighter. The crab was then placed in a dry dish (8^h 31^m a. m.) and left in the sunlight. As would be expected, at 8^h 35^m a. m. the specimen was still light. At 8^h 40^m a. m. it was put in a dish covered with a black tray and placed in the photographic dark-room. When examined at 10^h 45^m a. m. it was found to be still devoid of a color-pattern, as in the case of Experiment II. When the individual was put in sea-water and placed in a shaded part of the laboratory it became quite dark after a few minutes.

Experiment IV.—A rectangular glass dish, 35 cm. in length, 25 cm. in



Upper figure. Ocypoda kept in diffuse light of the laboratory.

Central figure. Same individual exposed to direct sunlight for 10 minutes.

Lower figure. Otocysts of Ocypoda.

width and 7 cm. in depth, was divided into two equal parts by a partition in the middle. One of these parts was lined and also covered with black glass. The other part was left without lining except that the side of the partition was covered with white bristol-board. The cover was made of ordinary clear white glass. Sea-water was poured into the dish until it was 2.5 cm. deep and then two crabs with dark plaid patterns were put in—the darker of the two in the light side, the other in the dark side (8^h 35^m a. m.). The dish was then placed in the direct sunlight until 9^h 47^m a. m. Both were equally light in color. (Temperature of water 45° C. at end of experiment.) The results indicated that heat was the factor which brought about the loss of color, so the following experiment was tried:

Experiment V.—Two dark specimens of practically the same shade were used. One was placed in a dish of water kept at a temperature of 45° C. (temperature of the water in Experiment IV after exposure to the sun), the other in water whose temperature was 23° C., and both were put in a shaded part of the laboratory; they were left for 15 minutes, after which the former became decidedly lighter, while the latter did not change.

Experiment VI.—The same experiment was repeated, except that the temperature of one was kept at 44° C. and the other at 23° C. The result was the same.

The last three experiments undoubtedly show that a temperature as high as that on the sands of Loggerhead Key will cause a loss of color when the specimen is not exposed to bright sunlight. These results received further confirmation in the following experiment:

Experiment VII.—Two dark-colored ocypodas were used. At 2^h 35^m p. m. one was put in a dry dish over a sand-bath, kept at 36° C., in a shaded part of the laboratory, and the other was placed under the same conditions, except that it was not heated. (Temperature of air 24° C.) At 3 p. m. the former had almost lost its color-pattern, while the latter had not changed.

Experiment VIII.—A light-colored ocypoda (1) which had its eyes painted with shellac and lampblack (it did not react to shadows) was put in a dish of sea-water and placed in a shaded part of the laboratory at 7^h 40^m a. m. Another light-colored one (2), whose eyes were painted (it was not quite as light as the other), was put in the direct sunlight without water (7^h 30^m a. m.). At 7^h 50^m a. m. (2) was brought into the laboratory, put in a dish of sea-water, and placed in the shaded part of the laboratory. Crab (1) was taken out of the sea-water, put in a dry dish, and then in the shaded part of the laboratory (7^h 56^m a. m.). Finally (2) was taken out of the water and left in the shaded part of the laboratory (8^h 06^m a. m.). Throughout these changes neither (1) nor (2) changed in color, and at 8^h 21^m a. m. they were in the same condition. This experiment affords quite conclusive proof that the eye of *Ocypoda* must receive light stimuli in order to bring about a distal migration of pigment under the carapace, *i. e.*, in order for the color-pattern to appear.

Experiment IX.—In this experiment two ocypodas whose eyes had been painted 24 hours before were used. (They did not react to light.) Both of the specimens were light in color, although kept in the shaded part of the laboratory (6 a. m. Temperature 23° C.). The paint was removed from the eyes of one of the individuals and in less than half an hour it became

darker. At 7^h 45^m a. m. it was much darker, showing a distinct plaid pattern, while the other ocypoda was still as light in color as at the beginning of the experiment. These results I consider as evidence that the stimulus given to the eye by light is an important factor in bringing out the color-pattern, since the temperature was practically constant throughout the experiment. It might be claimed that disturbances in the nervous condition of the specimen affected the results, but in the light of other observations this does not seem probable.

Experiment X.—A specimen with a very dark color-pattern was used and an attempt was made to bring about a color change by frightening it. The crab was stimulated several minutes by moving the hand in front of it. This caused the specimen to run about very vigorously, but there was no change in color. This method of stimulating the crab was continued until it showed signs of exhaustion, but still there was no change in color. When it was subjected to a strong electric shock two of the ambulatory appendages were broken off, but even this had no effect on the color-pattern. Finally the ocypoda was etherized for 2 minutes until it was perfectly quiet, and then allowed to revive, but this brought about no change in color pattern.

The results obtained in Experiments IV, V, VI, VII show conclusively that the high temperature on the surface of the sand, which is a result of the exposure to the direct sunlight, brings about a proximal migration of the dark pigment under the carapace of *Ocypoda* (plate 4). Accordingly the following two experiments were tried, in order to determine if the direct sunlight would cause a blanching of the carapace when the temperature was kept comparatively low.

Experiment XI.—An ocypoda which showed a dark color-pattern and which had been kept in the diffuse light of the laboratory (temperature of air 33° C.) was used. It was placed in a dish filled with sea-water and covered with a glass plate. The outside of the dish was then covered with a piece of heavy cloth saturated with alcohol (unfortunately no ice was at hand) and the whole thing was put in the direct sunlight on the sand at 2^h 04^m p. m. The evaporation of the alcohol kept the temperature of the water at 35° C. At 2^h 35^m p. m. the specimen was still almost as dark as at first. The slight loss of color was probably due to the 2° increase in temperature.

Experiment XII.—Using the same individual, the above experiment was repeated after removing the cooling cloth (2^h 40^m p. m.). At 2^h 56^m p. m. the temperature of the water was 45° C. and the specimen had become very light.

Experiment XIII.—The ocypoda used in Experiments XI and XII was brought into the laboratory and placed in a shaded place (2^h 56^m p. m.; temperature of air at 33° C.). At 3^h 11^m p. m. it had regained its original dark color.

Experiment XIV.—Experiment XI was repeated under the same conditions, except that the specimen was put in the darkness of the photographic dark-room. Although the temperature was kept at 35° C. by the above cooling device, the crab soon lost its color-pattern and dark color, a change undoubtedly due to the absence of a light stimulus on the eyes.

Often during the above experiments individuals were observed to grow

perceptibly darker after removal from water into a dry dish. This color change was undoubtedly due to a decrease in temperature resulting from the evaporation of water from the surface of the specimen.

Many observations were made on ocypodas living under natural conditions. During the middle of the day, when the sun was shining brightly, specimens seen feeding on the sand were usually light in color, but occasionally dark individuals were found. These latter had probably just emerged from their cool, shady burrows (the entrance not closed). During the late hours of the afternoon and on cloudy days, however, most of the ocypodas feeding along the beach were dark in color, although occasionally a very light one would be seen. Probably the latter had been buried in a closed burrow which was dark.

The following interesting observation of the effect of light on the pigment-cells of the eye was made: A small ocypoda was kept in a box, the bottom of which was filled with sand to a depth of 10 cm. There was a crack left between the bottom of the box and one of its sides, into which the direct sunlight shone. The specimen had burrowed to the bottom of the box in such a way as to have one eye exposed to the direct sunlight while the rest of the body, including the other eye, was in comparative darkness. When this individual was taken out the eye which had been exposed was almost devoid of black pigment, while the other one was black as usual. The color-pattern under the carapace, however, was neither very dark nor very light. After 15 minutes in the diffuse light of the laboratory both eyes were as black as usual.

While no experiments were tried to determine the effects of light and heat on the pigment migration in the retina of the eye, it is probably true that the blanching in this case was due to the heat of the direct sunlight and not to the light itself. The medium dark coloration of the hypodermis under the carapace may be explained by the facts that the eye was stimulated by light and that the rest of the body was exposed to a medium temperature, two conditions which, according to my experiments, would result in a medium dark coloration.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS.

Brooks and Herrick (1889) working on *Alpheus* and *Palæmonetes,* P. Mayer (1879) on *Idothea,* and Herdman (1894) on *Virbius varians* find that the stimulation of the eyes by light is an important factor in color change. Malard (1892) tells us that in the case of *Hippolyte varians* the intensity of the light has an effect on the color, and that in many crustacea the stimulation of the eye by light and the color environment are factors. In *Idotea tricuspidata* Matzdorff (1882) finds that variations in temperature, light, and density of water do not cause color change, but claims that the latter is a "sympatische Wechselfärbung" which varies with the surroundings. Pouchet (1872), in his work on *Palæmon* and *Leander serrator,* lays special

stress on the stimulation of the eye by light, but also finds that toxic substances and to some extent electric shocks may bring about color change. In a later paper (1876) he discusses in particular the influence of the background on color change. According to Fritz Müller (1883) alarm causes the color of the male of a Brazilian species of *Gelasimus* to change, and this is the only observation I know of on any brachyuran. Temperature does not seem to be a factor in color change according to the above investigators, but Jourdain (1878) working on *Nika edulis* finds that heat affects the color. Not only has he observed that low temperature causes a blanching, but he also tells us that stimulation of the eye by light and internal stimuli are factors in color change. The only other observations on crustacea in which temperature is said to play a part in the color changes are those of Gamble and Keeble (1900). These investigators find that the color of *Hippolyte varians* is affected by ether or the recovery from its effect, by electrical shocks, by cold, and by light stimuli through the eyes. In *Anolis*, according to Carlton (1903), the green state is brought about by darkness, withdrawal of circulation, and possibly the cutting of nerves. Specimens in narcosis from ether, those treated with nicotine, and those which are dead, are green in color. Carlton believes that the green state represents the resting condition of the melanophores and the state to which they return when they no longer receive stimuli. This green state seems to correspond to the blanched condition of *Ocypoda*, being brought about by some of the same factors.

The crustacean literature does not seem to afford any extensive investigations of color changes in land-crabs such as have been made in the case of the lizard, although Gamble and Keeble (1900, 1904) have published two papers which promise to be the beginning of a very thorough study. It is of considerable interest, I think, to find that the results of my work on *Ocypoda*—which lives under much the same conditions as *Anolis carolinensis*, worked on by Parker and Starratt (1904), and especially *Phrynosoma blainvillei*, studied by Parker (1906)—agree in many respects with the results obtained by these two investigators.

The experiments so far performed yield no results which would indicate that color environment or nervous condition are responsible for changes in color observed through the carapace of *Ocypoda*; nor does the immersion in water seem to be a factor, except in so far as the temperature of the water is concerned. Changes in the intensity of light and variations in temperature are undoubtedly the main stimuli, if not the only ones, which bring about the proximal migration of pigment resulting in a dark color-pattern or the distal migration resulting in a disappearance of the color-pattern.

In the absence of light when the temperature is anywhere between 22° C. and 45° C., and undoubtedly when it is lower or even higher, a light coloration occurs.

Generally in diffuse light, and even direct sunlight, a dark coloration appears, provided the temperature is not too high.

Usually at low temperatures, not above 35° C., a dark coloration occurs, provided the eye is stimulated by light.

At high temperatures, above 35° C., a light coloration is the rule, and it occurs independently of the intensity of light.

The temperature limits given above are those obtained from a study during the hot summer months, but it may be that in winter, when the average temperature is much lower, the limits would be different.

These results may be stated in another way. Dark coloration occurs at comparatively low temperature in diffuse or direct sunlight.

Light coloration occurs at comparatively high temperatures when light is absent.

Light coloration occurs at comparatively low temperatures and at medium temperatures when light is absent.

Light coloration occurs at comparatively high temperatures in diffuse or direct sunlight.

The blanching of individuals on the sands of Loggerhead Key is probably due to the high temperature alone. (See plate 1.) The results of Experiment XI indicate that it is not a reversed light reaction. On the other hand, the blanching in the photographic dark-room may be due to the absence of light alone.

The dark coloration of individuals occurs only when the eye is stimulated by light, and then only when the temperature is comparatively low. The indications are that it is not the result of the direct action of light on the pigment-cells or on the nervous system.

EQUILIBRATING ORGANS—"AUDITORY ORGANS."

For many years an auditory function was ascribed to certain organs found in the basal joint of the antennules in decapods, but since the work of Bethe (1895, 1897), Beer (1898, 1899) and Prentiss (1901) we have strong evidence for the assumption that the so-called "auditory organs" do not have the auditory function, but that they are organs which are important in the maintenance of equilibrium. So far as I know we have not as yet any good evidence that the Crustacea hear, and in those cases which have been recorded the supposed reaction to sound was probably due to tactile stimuli.

Although Prentiss (1901) stated in his paper on "The Otocyst of Decapod Crustacea" that *Gelasimus pugilator,* a brachyuran decapod, living much of the time on land, did not react to sound-waves, I was much interested to see if such an active and highly developed land-crab as *Ocypoda* was able to hear.

The "auditory organs," or otocysts, as I shall call them, are situated in the basal joint of the antennules, as in nearly all the decapods (plate 4), and they are partly protected by the rather broad but short rostrum.

In order to determine if *Ocypoda* would react to sound-waves the following experiments were tried: A flute was played upon and large stones were hit together while the observer was hidden 12 feet away, but no movement could be seen that would indicate that the ocypodas were stimulated. The report of a pistol produced no apparent effect. During a heavy storm the peals of thunder were deafening, but several ocypodas which were along the beach did not return to their burrows nor cease their feeding. These experiments and observations indicate that *Ocypoda* does not hear, but they are by no means conclusive, and a series of such careful experiments as those performed by Fielde and Parker (1904) on ants and Yerkes (1905) on the green frog (*Rana clamitans*) would well bear repeating before it should be said that *Ocypoda* does not react to atmospheric sounds. Although it does not seem probable, it might then be found that notes causing a very small number or a very large number of vibrations of the air per second had an effect.

Ocypoda while eating produces a grinding sound by the movements of its mouth-parts, and at times it also makes a noise resembling the "peep" of young birds, but I have no proof that these sounds stimulate the otocysts of other crabs.

Prentiss (1901), in his review of the crustacean literature (p. 228), has cited two well-known examples of noises, the one a case of stridulation in *Palinurus vulgaris*,[1] described first by Möbius (1867) and later (more correctly probably) by T. J. Parker (1878), and the other the pistol-like report of *Alpheus* described by Goode (1878). To these may be added the stridulation of *Ocypoda*, although I have never been fortunate enough to hear it. Often at night I have stayed on the beach among the feeding ocypodas in the hope of hearing the stridulation, and I have listened at the entrance of the burrows which were occupied by individuals. I have good reason, however, to believe that the stridulating noise is made, since I have often seen ocypodas go through the motions that would produce it when they were attempting to gain possession of a burrow occupied by another specimen.

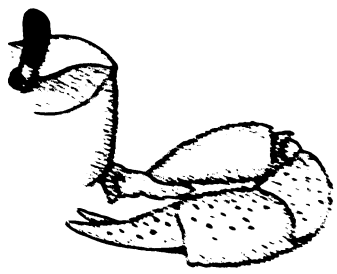


FIG. 8.—Position of chela during stridulation.

Along the inner surface of the palm of the cheliped in the individuals there is a row of fine tubercles (stridulating ridge, plate 3), which when the cheliped is bent, as shown in text-fig. 8, comes in contact with a process on the basal joint. By moving the distal part of the appendage from side to side the row of tubercles is rubbed against the process and a sound is produced. I have seen this movement frequently in the case of individuals

[1] Mentioned first by Leach in Malacostraca Podophthalmata Britanniæ, 1815.

that seemed to be excited, and it was performed with great rapidity. There is scarcely any doubt that the sound is produced, but I have no reason to believe that other ocypodas hear it. However, the vibrations produced by the rubbing might easily be transmitted to the sand and thence to the sensitive tactile hairs on the ambulatory appendages of another individual, thus producing a tactile stimulus.

In Mier's (1876) paper it is stated that in one species of *Ocypoda* the stridulating ridge is absent in the very young individuals. I have examined many specimens of *O. arenaria,* the smallest 1 cm. across the carapace, but have always found the ridge present. It is of interest to note that the land-crab, *Gecarcinus,* which is found in abundance on Loggerhead Key and which lives under very similar conditions, has no stridulating ridge.

As has been pointed out by Prentiss (1901), it does not follow that an animal is able to hear because it makes a noise, and as yet we have no observation or experiments proving that *Ocypoda* or any other crustacean has audition.

Many attempts were made to repeat the experiments performed by Beer (1898) and Prentiss (1901), in which the behavior was observed after the removal of one or both of the otocysts. In every case in which both of these organs were removed the individuals did not live long enough to recover from the shock. As a general rule, even the removal of one otocyst caused such profuse bleeding that the specimen soon died. The behavior of operated individuals, however, was very similar to that observed by Prentiss (1901). Those ocypodas which had their eyes painted, so that there was no reaction to sudden changes in the intensity of light, retained their equilibrium as well as normal individuals. The only difference in behavior was their tendency to remain quiet. While the eyes undoubtedly assist in maintaining the equilibrium, they are not the most important organs in this respect.

The removal of one otocyst brought about some disturbance in equilibrium, part of which may have been due to the shock, but the removal of both otocysts caused very marked effects; individuals when placed on the sand usually turned one or more somersaults. While these disturbances may have been partly due to the operation, they were undoubtedly largely the effect of the loss of organs that regulate the equilibrium.

TACTILE SENSE.

While *Ocypoda* probably does not hear, the tactile sense is well developed and is a very important factor in regulating this animal's activities.

As would be expected, *Ocypoda* is quite sensitive to jars transmitted to the sand. I have often watched individuals which were part way down in their burrows, but not so far that the legs of one side might not be seen. Under these conditions, a movement of my foot in the sand or a step within 3 or 4 feet caused the specimen to react by a sudden movement, even when

I was hidden from view. Often while observing ocypodas in the trap I have found that they did not move when a stick was waved in front of them, but as soon as it hit the side of the trap they would react either by a quick jump or a movement of the eye-stalks. However, there was considerable difference in the behavior of individuals, some being quite sensitive and others not so much so.

Ocypoda also reacts to vibrations of the water in aquaria, but it is not nearly so sensitive to these stimuli as to those caused by jarring the sand.

LOCOMOTION.

The locomotion of the Decapoda has been investigated by List (1897) and Bethe (1897), but both of these workers have confined their studies to those forms which live most of the time in water and which are not adapted to very active locomotion on land. The Ocypodæ, however, spend a large part of their lives on the beach sands and can travel for long distances at a considerable rate of speed. In fact, their movements are so rapid that it is often impossible to determine the order in which the various ambulatory appendages are used.

Bethe (1897) has observed that *Carcinus mænas* ordinarily travels sideways, but that to a very limited extent it can move forward and backward. According to this investigator the locomotion sideways is directly sideways, and not oblique as List (1897) has described for decapods in general.

As in the case of *Carcinus*, ordinarily *Ocypoda* runs sideways and in a direction at right angles to the sagittal plane of the body. It seems to be much better adapted to locomotion in other directions, however, than any of the Brachyura. Unlike *Carcinus*, it will move obliquely sideways with considerable speed and will travel forward for long distances at a good rate. As mentioned in Experiment D, *Ocypoda* can move backward for quite a distance, but it does so slowly, and when a quick movement is required in that direction it usually jumps. On the whole it seems to be better adapted to life on land, so far as locomotion is concerned, than any other decapod.

Ocypoda usually runs toward an object with a considerable degree of accuracy. It often returns to its burrow almost directly in a straight line when disturbed by the approach of man, and I have often seen them accomplish this from a distance of 15 or 20 feet. This same accuracy is shown when they approach objects which have been thrown on the sand, although it is true that sometimes they fail to go more than two-thirds of the distance. So far as I have observed, individuals very seldom run beyond the mark.

Bethe (1897) on page 510 says: "Von sehr hervorragendem Interesse ist ferner [*Ocypoda*] in seinem Sinne vom Licht. Die Bedeutung des Lichtes und Entfernung des Gegenstandes [nicht der Reiz] wird [durch] Bethe's statement

that *Carcinus* does not see in the way we do is undoubtedly true also of *Ocypoda,* but I believe that the latter has, through the use of the eyes, a sense of position and distance; else how could it run so quickly and often so accurately after objects thrown on the sand several feet away?

Not only is *Ocypoda* quite accurate in returning to its burrow after moving away from it in a straight line, but it also returns accurately after running around in different directions on the beach. However, individuals differ much in this respect. The following observation showed very nicely how an ocypoda could return directly to its burrow even after feeding along the beach and showed also that it could return when the dark opening of the burrow was hidden. This crab had made its home so that the opening was in a hollow formed by the heel of a shoe and on this account the entrance was concealed (fig. 9). Starting from *A,* the specimen made its way leisurely to *B* (12 feet), feeding on the way; from *B,* it slowly went to *C* (10 feet) continuing its feeding; then the approach of a man caused the crab to run for its burrow (about 13 feet away), and it did so directly and accurately even though, as stated above, the entrance was hidden. Similar exhibitions of accuracy, when, however, the opening of the burrow was not hidden from view, were frequently observed. The young individuals are much less accurate in this respect, and while an observer is walking along the beach many of the small ones will be seen running about aimlessly as though lost, while the adults nearly always reach their burrows easily.

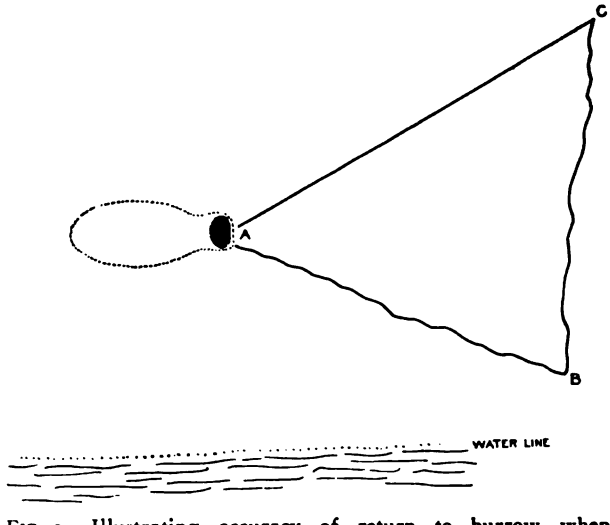


FIG. 9.—Illustrating accuracy of return to burrow when entrance was hidden from view.

While *Ocypoda* undoubtedly depends to a considerable extent on its eyes during movement toward a definite object or place, as is indicated by the inactivity of individuals with painted eyes, there are other factors which are almost equally important. The care which many of the older individuals take in preparing the surface of the sand immediately in front of the entrance to their burrows leads one to believe that they are sensitive to the contour of surfaces. Such a sense of the contour of surfaces has already

my walks along the beach. The body always rests on the sand, the legs are relaxed and stretched out, and the eyes are down in their sockets. Unless the sand is jarred too much by the approach of the observer, they lie perfectly still and do not react to changes in light intensity caused by the movement of an object in front of them. They may be even picked up before they show signs of activity. Upon one occasion a piece of meat on the end of a reed was moved within about 5 cm. of the mouth-parts, but this brought forth no reaction nor did the crab react when the meat was held as close to the mouth-parts as possible without touching them. When, however, the appendages of the mouth were touched by the food, they began to move slowly and then faster; after this the eyes came up, the ambulatory appendages assumed the position necessary for locomotion, and finally the chelæ seized the meat.

While *Ocypoda* does not normally exhibit what has been called the death-feigning reaction, or, as Bethe (1897) has called it, in the case of *Carcinus*, the "Starrkrampf reflex," it does so sometimes when placed upon its back and held in that position for a minute or so.

MEMORY.

Since the appearance of Bethe's (1898) classical paper on the nervous system of *Carcinus mœnas*, in which he compares this crustacean to a reflex machine and denies it the ability to learn, several papers have appeared which furnish abundant proof that some crabs are able to profit by experience and are even capable of forming habits. Yerkes (1902) investigating *Carcinus granulatus*, Yerkes and Huggins (1903) studying the crayfish *Cambarus affinis*, and Spaulding (1904) working on the hermit-crab *Eupagurus longicarpus*, have found that these crustacea form associations.

I hoped that *Ocypoda* would be a favorable subject for a quantitative study of habit formation, but as far as my experiments have been carried this does not seem to be the case. *Ocypoda*, we have seen, is a very active crustacean; its eyes are very sensitive when compared to those of other crabs; it is easily frightened, and when in this condition either runs away rapidly or remains perfectly still, failing to behave normally; when placed in a labyrinth with a solid bottom it usually scampers away from the hand that has released it and then often settles down in a corner without attempting to escape, or tries in vain to dig a burrow; failing in this it tries to climb; when the bottom of the labyrinth is made of sand it usually digs a burrow, goes down in it, plugs up the entrance, and stays there for a considerable time.

For the reason just mentioned it has been found very difficult to devise labyrinths which would be satisfactory, and the data accumulated on the length of time required for individuals to escape are probably not very trustworthy information concerning the rapidity with which *Ocypoda* forms a habit.

Several different kinds of labyrinths were used, some of them similar to those employed by Yerkes (1902) and Yerkes and Huggins (1903), but these had to be reversed in the case of *Ocypoda,* because when the latter is disturbed it always runs away from the water. All the observations were made while the observer was practically hidden, and healthy active individuals were chosen.

It was found that labyrinths built of wood and closed up except at the exit were so dark that individuals would hide in them for hours at a time without attempting to escape, and that also labyrinths much more complex than those used by Yerkes and Huggins were of no use, on account of the length of time required for the crabs to find the exit.

A labyrinth like that used by Yerkes (1902) in his experiments with *Carcinus granulatus* was made, but glass plates were substituted throughout for the wood, so as to allow plenty of light to enter. It also had a glass bottom and top and was placed on the beach near the water, properly protected from any disturbance by the movements of people. The glass bottom was covered with a layer of sand about 1.5 cm. thick, and a screened pen was built around the exit so that the specimens could not escape entirely. It was found that individuals placed in this labyrinth usually only spent a short time in hunting for the exit; then they tried to dig a burrow, and failing in this they attempted to escape by climbing. Finally they usually settled down and remained quiet, so that they furnished no data bearing on the object of the experiment.

Finding that individuals nearly always made some attempt to burrow, another kind of labyrinth was devised in which the burrowing instinct might be made use of in escape. While the ocypodas dug their way out in every experiment, they did not usually do so until night.

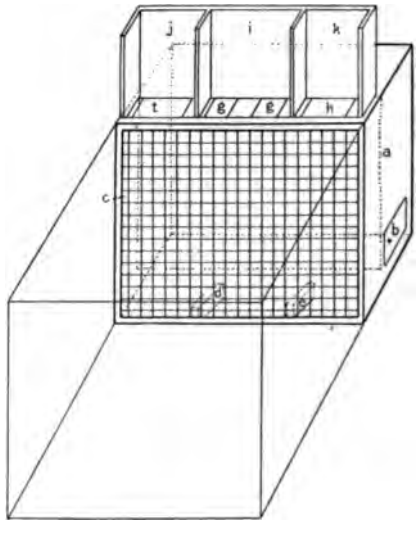


FIG. 10.—Labyrinth for memory experiments.

Having noticed that nearly all individuals were inclined to climb, when confined, another labyrinth was made in which escape might be accomplished by this method. A box 11 inches wide, 15 inches long, and 10.25 inches high was divided lengthways into two equal parts by a vertical wooden partition (*a*) which extended from the top of the box to within 1.5 inches of the floor, thus leaving an opening connecting the two compartments (fig. 10). The

ocypodas experimented with were introduced into the posterior compartment, shown in fig. 10, through the sliding door indicated (*b*). The front of the box (*c*), instead of being of wood, was made of ordinary fly-screen. At (*d*) and (*e*) on the floor of the box were placed two pieces of wood 2.4 inches long and 1.6 inches high, which divided the anterior compartment into three passageways. In the top of the box at (*f*), (*g*) and (*h*) were set three windows 2.6 inches by 4 inches, made of ordinary window-glass. In the center of the middle window (*g*) an opening was left which was the exit from the labyrinth, and around this window was erected a barrier (*i*) which prevented the crabs from climbing out over the box. Similar ones (*i*) (*k*) were placed around the other windows so as to make the lighting the same in each case. In escaping a crab would have to pass from the posterior compartment into the anterior compartment, climb up the screen, pass through the opening in the middle window, and then climb down the outside of the screen to the surface of the sand in the pen. This pen was inclosed by panes of window-glass, 10 by 15 inches, set vertically.

Six active ocypodas were used in the following tests, but one of these soon died and another was lost, so that in the table below only the time records of four individuals, A, B, C and D, are recorded. As a rule each crab was given two trials a day, and precautions were taken to guard the individuals from disturbing influences of moving objects.

In general there seems to be a decrease in the time required for escape up to the eighth day, but after that the average time increases. This increase may have been due to the condition of the crabs. During the climbing after the eighth day they fell frequently, and this undoubtedly had a bad effect on them.

Time required for escape from labyrinth, recorded in minutes.

Date.	A.	B.	C.	D.	Average.	Date.	A.	B.	C.	D.	Average.
July 6	9	13	3	127	38	July 10	9	18	10	2	9.75
7	4	1.75	65	20	22.68	11	0.25	34	1.5	24	14.93
7	36	14.5	12.5	4	16.75	11	4	8.5	12.5	8.25	8.31
8	21	1	5	19	11.5	12	14.5	17	1.25	23.5	14.06
8	13	6.5	12.5	1	8.25	12	1	3	2.5	16	5.62
8	17.5	15	.5	15	12	13	0.5	7.5	.25	11	4.81
9	2	11.5	.25	6	4.93	13	10.75	41	6.5	49	26.81
9	9	1	6	1.5	4.37	14	5	36	.5	4	11.37
10	10	8	.25	6.5	6.18	15	74	4.5	2.5	.5	20.38
10	46	4	.5	9	14.87	15	3	18	32.5	13	16.62

During the first few experiments the behavior was as follows: Individuals when introduced into the posterior compartment almost invariably ran to the left side; then if active they went into the left passageway and up the screen, usually following the corner of the box quite closely; on arriving at the top they would scratch the left glass window, apparently

attempting to get out, but failing in this they would either crawl along the edge of the window toward the right until they reached the opening in the middle of the center window, where they would climb out and down into the pen, or they would descend again into the box and after a time repeat the climbing either in the left-hand or right-hand side and occasionally in the middle part of the screen.

Although the time records do not indicate that the ocypodas learned the position of the exit, yet the behavior, after about 5 days, began to indicate that all the individuals had learned it more or less perfectly. They still continued to crawl up along the corners of the box, but they now often climbed across the screen in a diagonal direction toward the exit, from either the right or left passage-way. Toward the end of the series of tests, the ocypodas became quite inactive, often refusing for a long time to move, but when they did become active they frequently climbed almost directly toward the exit.

The fact that in the above labyrinth experiments we do not obtain good quantitative evidence of memory does not show that *Ocypoda* is without memory. It must be admitted that the labyrinth used was a rather difficult one and that the tests did not extend over as long a period as they should. The injury experienced by frequent falls from the screen and the somewhat artificial conditions undoubtedly affected the results.

Another experiment performed shows that *Ocypoda* profits by experience. It had been noticed that individuals in the trap made use of the sea-water given to them in glass dishes in much the same way as individuals under natural conditions use the water in the sea. Accordingly a trap was thoroughly cleaned and stocked with several ocypodas caught in another part of the island. A study of the behavior was then made when a dish of sea-water was put in the trap. Care was taken not to allow any of the water to drop on the sand and the dish was buried until its rim was level with the surface of the sand. The ocypodas apparently did not pay any attention to the dish at first, but after a time, seemingly by chance, they crawled until their legs projected over the edge and into the water. Usually when this occurred to an individual it would settle down, digging the legs of the other side into the sand as it does when waiting for a wave. After a time it often climbed over into the water and moistened its gills. This experiment was repeated for several days, a dish of water being given to them twice a day, and many of the crabs soon went through the same behavior almost as soon as the water was introduced. Finally a dish without water was tried and it was found that some of the crabs behaved in the same manner as when water was in the dish, *i. e.*, they crawled up to its edge, settled as though waiting for a wave, and then finally climbed over into the dry dish.

This behavior I interpret as a case of associative memory, in which the

crabs formed an association between contact with the glass dish and the presence of water.

In conclusion it may be said that *Ocypoda,* like the crustacea investigated by other workers, has memory, is able to profit by experience, and can form habits.

SUMMARY.

Adult ocypodas build two kinds of burrows. One consists of a single tunnel extending down in the sand for 3 to 4 feet. The other is similar, except that it is shorter and has a passage branching off from it, which is used for escape.

Young ocypodas make short burrows, only a few inches long, which often extend vertically downward.

Breeding in the region of Loggerhead Key probably occurs in the spring and early summer.

Ocypoda is a scavenger and a cannibal. The eyes do not seem to play an important rôle in the detection of food, but they undoubtedly lead individuals to objects which may be food.

That *Ocypoda* is stimulated by odors was not conclusively shown, but certain experiments point strongly in that direction.

The eyes are highly developed, so far as crustacean eyes are concerned; they are quite sensitive to large differences in the intensity of light; they do not react to different colors; they aid much in the search for food, in the detection of enemies, and in the accuracy of locomotion. Ocypodas probably do not have vision such as that of the human eye, nor do they see the color and finer characters of the surface of an object, but they undoubtedly see its outlines and possibly some of the more evident irregularities of the surface made evident by differences in lighting.

The color pattern seen through the carapace of *Ocypoda* changes in intensity under different conditions of temperature and light.

In the absence of light when the temperature is anywhere between 22° C. and 45° C., and undoubtedly when it is even lower or higher, a light coloration occurs.

Generally in diffuse light and even in direct sunlight a dark coloration appears, provided the temperature is not too high.

Usually at low temperatures not above 35° C., a dark coloration occurs, provided the eyes are stimulated by light.

At high temperatures above 35° C., a light coloration is the rule, and it occurs independently of the presence of light.

No indication of an auditory sense was observed in *Ocypoda*. The so-called auditory organs [illegible] are not organs of hearing.

[illegible] has a sense of touch in the tips of its large chelæ. Any sound which [illegible] is not heard by other individuals, but

the vibrations of sound produced during the movement of this stridulating ridge against the basal joint of the chela are probably felt by other ocypodas.

The tactile sense is well developed in *Ocypoda*. With the body orientated in a fixed position, the animal can move in practically any direction. It runs with a considerable degree of accuracy and undoubtedly has a sense of position and distance. In locomotion these crabs are guided by differences in the lighting of surfaces, by tactile stimuli, by differences in muscular effort and by the stimulation of the equilibrating organs resulting from a tilting of the body.

During most of the time *Ocypoda* lives on land, only going to the water occasionally for the purpose of moistening the gills. When exposed to the direct sunlight without water for more than 4 hours individuals usually die. They can live in their burrows without sea-water for at least 48 hours.

The "Aufbäum Reflex" described by Bethe is an attitude of defense. Ocypoda often hides from man by simply settling down and throwing sand over its body. It is sometimes found in a resting or "sleeping" condition when it does not react to many of the ordinary stimuli. The death-feigning reaction is exhibited under certain conditions.

This brachyuran forms associations and habits.

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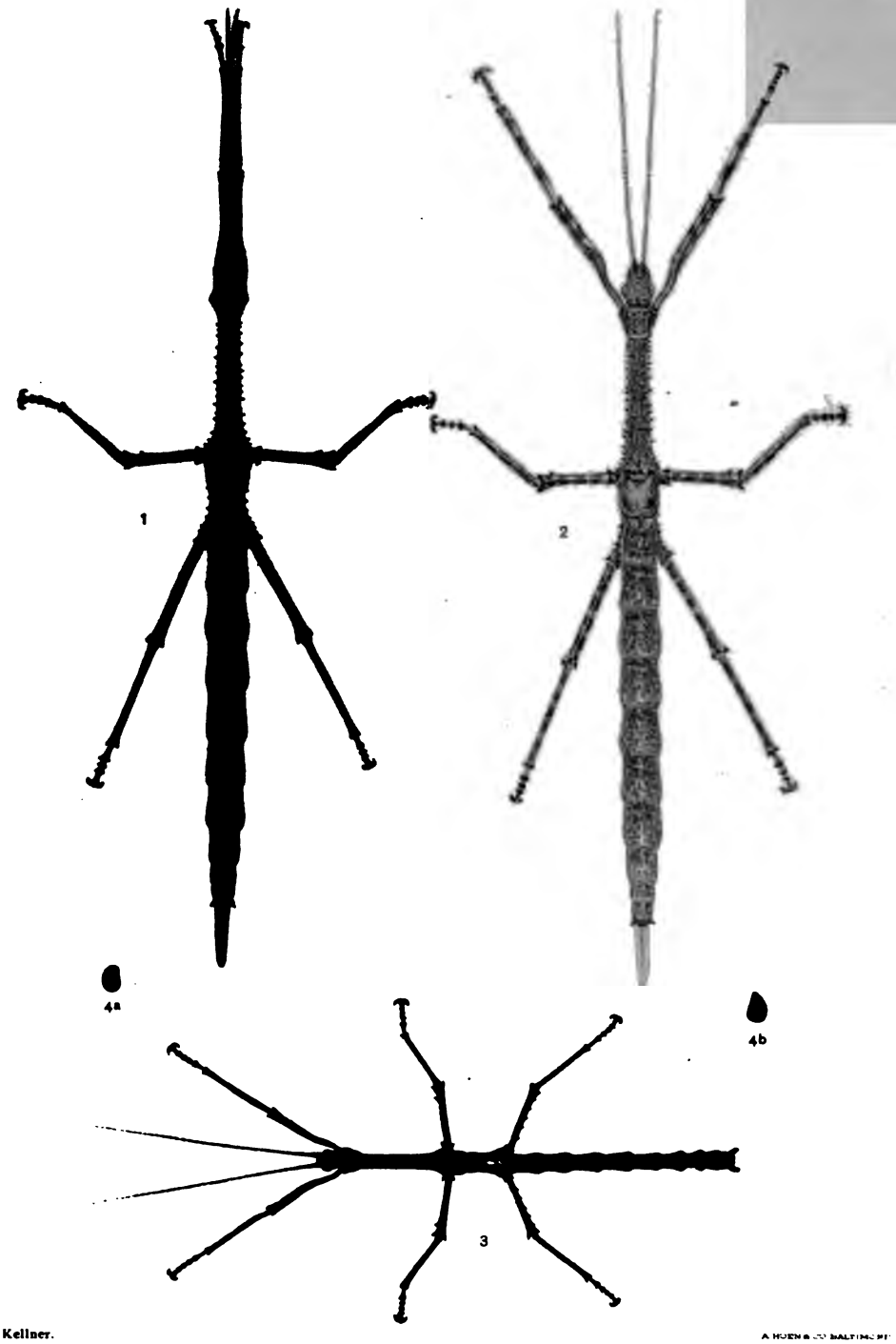

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Fig. 1. A dark type *Aplopus* female with first pair of legs extending forward, inclosiug the antenna. This position is often assumed and serves to give the anterior end of the insect the appearance of a straight stick.

Fig. 2. The pale-gray type female with first pair of legs apart showing curve in the femora, which fits closely to the head in Fig. 1.

Fig. 3. Male *Aplopus*, indicating his smaller size and green legs. Figs. 1, 2, and 3 are two-thirds natural size.

Fig. 4a. Egg of *Aplopus*, natural size. 4b. Seed of *Suriana maritima*, natural size. The two resemble each other closely in size and color.

II. HABITS, REACTIONS, AND MATING INSTINCTS OF THE "WALKING STICK," APLOPUS MAYERI.

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3 plates and 1 text figure.

HABITS, REACTIONS AND MATING INSTINCTS OF THE "WALKING-STICK," APLOPUS MAYERI.

By Charles R. Stockard.

An investigation of the behavior of a protectively adapted insect is important to show definitely whether the actions of such an animal are coordinated with its protective structure. If an insect such as the "walking-stick," which forms the subject of the present discussion, was found to move about briskly on exposed portions of the plant on which it lives, and to show other habits which might attract the attention of enemies in spite of its apparent resemblance to the stems and leafy parts of the plant, then, notwithstanding this resemblance, it would scarcely be as well protected as other insects showing no such resemblance but remaining still and concealed among the leaves and branches of the shrub. It is clear to all observers that the behavior of an animal is almost if not quite as important as its structure in determining whether or not the animal is truly protectively adapted to its surroundings.

With the above as a premise, we may ask what would be the theoretical expectation for protective behavior of such an insect as *Aplopus*. Since movement attracts the attention of birds and other enemies almost or quite as readily as conspicuous appearance, we should first expect this insect to remain perfectly motionless during the day, while it may be seen, and to move at night; in other words, nocturnal habits would be ideal for its protection. *Aplopus* is unable to fly or leap; thus its most effective means of escape would be to drop bodily from a position when touched, and become lost by falling and alighting among the lower branches of the bush, where it might remain motionless and concealed. When moving from place to place it would attract less attention should it move slowly, and the extreme perfection of movement would be to vibrate from side to side as it progressed, as a twig swings in a light breeze. The male is colored with more green than the female; therefore, he may move among the leaves to better advantage and she will be less conspicuous on the larger brown stems. Lastly, since these insects vary greatly in color, as do most protectively colored animals, we might expect, for instance, that light-gray females would rest on the lighter-colored stems, while the dark-brown type would be found on darker stems.

After studying the habits of the "walking-stick" one finds that the foregoing expectations for its behavior are minutely carried out, with the single exception of the last mentioned.

In the following pages I shall discuss the habits of *Aplopus* and enumerate the results of a number of experiments conducted to test its responses to various stimuli and changed conditions. Record will also be made of some experiments concerning their mating instincts, in which males were induced to copulate with the amputated abdomen of a female attached to a small stick supported by wire legs.

The experiments were performed at the Laboratory of Marine Biology of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, Tortugas, Florida, and it is a pleasure to express my thanks to Dr. Alfred G. Mayer, the Director of the Laboratory, for many courtesies extended to me while there, and for the kindly interest he has shown in my work.

BEHAVIOR OF APLOPUS IN NATURE.

Aplopus mayeri is a large insect, the females often measuring more than 8 inches from the tip of antennæ to the tip of abdomen, while for the smaller male 6 inches is an adult length. The male's antennæ are longer than those of the female. The male is much more sensitive to stimuli and in nature is the more active of the two. Figures 1 and 2 of plate 1 illustrate females and figure 3 shows a male, all reduced to two-thirds natural size. A decided difference in color will be noted between the two females, one being very dark, while the other is a pale gray. A large variety of gradations exist between these two extremes. The males are more or less greenish, but they also vary considerably in color. In some males the abdomen is a rich dark brown, in others a pale drab. The legs in all are darker or lighter shades of green. Such variations are common within the family Phasmidæ, all members of which are more or less protectively colored and constructed.

The young males are brown or grayish, resembling the females in color, and can only be distinguished from them by the absence of the oviscapt and the presence of a prominent organ of intromission on their ventral surfaces near the tip of the abdomen. At maturity, however, the males acquire the adult greenish color and may then be recognized at a glance. The wings of both sexes are rudimentary, but are capable of being raised when the animal is greatly excited, giving to it a lively and agitated appearance. *Aplopus* has spines and prominences on its body and legs suggesting the slight irregularities on the bark of twigs.

These insects are found only on their food-plant, *Suriana maritima*, and on this shrub they are extremely difficult to detect. In color and shape the female resembles closely the stems of small branches. The greenish color of the male conceals it among the leaves, while one may find a close resemblance in size and color between the eggs of *Aplopus* and the seed of

Suriana, both of which fall from the branches to the ground, where they are obscured among the débris (figs. 4*a* and 4*b* of plate 1).

The "walking-sticks" are not easily collected during the day, though at night, when they become active, one may obtain them in large numbers by means of a lantern. The following instance may be cited as illustrating the extent to which these insects are concealed as they sit among the branches. A small group of bushes about 10 feet in diameter contained six large females and two adult males. Three of the females were sitting near the edge of the bushes and within about 2 feet of one another. A person unaccustomed to searching for the insects, although familiar with their appearance, attempted to find the three, but failed to locate any of them. I then followed after him and succeeded in locating two, but failed to find the third until a second careful search was made.

As a test of how readily birds might find aplopi while in their motionless attitude, five individuals were placed on the ground near a hen with several small chickens. The mother showed no evidence of recognizing the insects until within a short time the *Aplopi* became excited at finding themselves on the ground and began to crawl toward a bush. When they began moving the hen immediately started after them.

The observations and experiments that follow were based on the actions of 26 males and 81 females, some of which were kept in cages, while others were allowed to remain in their natural environment on isolated *Suriana* bushes.

ATTITUDES WHEN AT REST.

Aplopus assumes a decidedly protective attitude when at rest. The forelegs, which are slightly grooved on their anterior surfaces, are directed forward, the grooves being approximated to form a tube inclosing the antennæ, thus producing a resemblance between the anterior end of the animal and the straight end of a small dead stick (see fig. 1 of plate 1 and also figs. 1, 2, and 3 of plate 2, photographs from life of the insects in such a position). With their forelegs straightened in this manner, the females usually rest in an obliquely vertical position on the leafless stems. The abdomen sometimes points upward, the tips of the forelimbs being directed down, grasping the branch on which they rest. Again, the abdomen may be turned downward and serve as a partial support, while the body, with the extended forelegs free, points obliquely upward. In either attitude the insect closely simulates a dead stick projecting from the supporting branch. The femora of the first pair of legs are curved near their proximal joints so as to fit closely around the insect's head when they are extended forward (fig. 2 of plate 1). The females, as mentioned before, vary considerably in color from dark brown to light gray, as do also the stems of *Suriana,* though the insects do not at all times take advantage of this variation, the dark females being not uncommonly seen on light stems, and *vice versa.*

The males do not so constantly assume the position with the first legs extended. This attitude is less essential for them than for the females, since they are found as a rule among the leafed branches, where their greenish legs are inconspicuous. Their slenderer proportions and smaller size also make them more difficult to see. At times, however, the males do straighten their first pair of legs forward and assume the position so common to the female.

The more common occurrence of the greenish males among the foliage and of the brown females upon the brown stems of the plant suggest the case of *Mantis religiosa*. Di Cesnola[1] records this mantis as occurring in a green and a brown form in Italy, the green form being always found upon green grass and the brown form upon grass burnt by the sun. He found that when 25 individuals of the green form were tied on brown grass all were killed in 11 days, while 20 tied on green grass were all alive after 17 days. The results were similar when the brown form was tied on green and burnt grass.

MOVEMENTS OF APLOPUS.

Aplopus is nocturnal in its habits. During the day it sits motionless among the branches, but as the sun's rays weaken the males begin to move about first, and later the females. Their manner of walking is peculiarly interesting. They resemble sticks crawling about on legs. The legs are moved in a stiff manner and the insect progresses slowly as a rule, although they sometimes move at a rapid gait. While walking among the branches or on a flat surface they often show a lateral swinging movement, the foothold forming a fixed point, while by bending the tarsal and knee joints the body is swung sidewise, sometimes with an amplitude of more than half an inch. This movement suggests to the observer the swinging or waving motion of branches and stems when shaken, or blown by the wind. The male has also a peculiar quivering movement that is sometimes performed at intervals while moving about the branches. This motion is more to be associated with the mating instincts, as is shown below. In the evening *Aplopus* shows a tendency to climb upward, being negatively geotropic. It will then often turn and go upward if the twig is inverted after it has reached the top.

The males travel greater distances during the night than do the females. Three females under observation did not move more than 2 feet from their original positions within a period of two days, yet others were found to migrate to parts of the bushes 10 or 12 feet distant during a single night. The males usually travel many yards in a night and it is almost impossible to keep track of them for more than one day.

Aplopus avoids or escapes its enemies in the following ways: On several

[1] Di Cesnola, A. P. Preliminary note on the protective value of color in *Mantis religiosa*. Biometrika, III, p. 58, 1904.

Fig. 1. Female Aplopus in normal attitude on Suriana branch.

Fig. 2. Female in somewhat different position.

Fig. 3. Light-gray female on a dark stem of Suriana.

occasions females were touched lightly as they sat in their protective attitude. They remained motionless after being touched, as though they were inanimate bodies. A male under observation about dusk was struck by a large insect which flew against it; the *Aplopus* jerked quickly back and remained motionless for more than a minute, after which it walked swiftly down the branch.

The most effective means of escape for these animals is the "dropping reaction." When one attempting to capture an *Aplopus* fails to seize it the first time, it often drops bodily from the limb on which it rested and catches on some lower branch that it may chance to strike. If seen and unsuccessfully grabbed at for the second time, it will again drop and may sometimes fall entirely to the ground. One male in attempting to escape capture fell to the ground, striking on its back with its legs extended in the air. It feigned death perfectly and remained in this awkward position for more than 8 minutes; then turned itself over and moved away so quickly that it was lost sight of in the dim evening light.

Since "walking-sticks" are unable either to fly or jump, this dropping reaction is a most important means of escape, and the dense growth of the *Suriana* bushes would apparently prevent birds from finding the insect a second time after it had so suddenly fallen out of reach. Their motionless attitudes during the day and close resemblance to the stems of the bushes no doubt serve to protect *Aplopus* to a marked degree from predaceous birds and other enemies.

The food of *Aplopus* consists entirely of the leaves of *Suriana maritima*, the plant on which it lives. The only previously published statement regarding its habits is a brief paragraph in the catalogue from the supply department of the Marine Biological Laboratory at Woods Hole. This states that "the prey is seized by a quick movement of the forelegs." Such an idea is, of course, erroneous, since all members of this family are known to be vegetable feeders. The statement is doubtless based on the opinion of some amateur collector. *Aplopus* usually feeds at night, although those resting on leafy branches are sometimes observed to feed during the day. In feeding they bite the leaf straight across the top and often eat it entirely away, or they may bite the leaf in an up-and-down fashion until it is consumed. They rarely make semicircular cuts in the leaves, as the locust often does. These characteristically bitten leaves serve to furnish a trustworthy index of the whereabouts of *Aplopi*, as they seem to be somewhat locally distributed on the island.

MATING INSTINCTS.

Mating occurs as a rule during the night, although several pairs were observed *in copulo* during the day. The active process is much the same as in kindred insects. The male takes a position on the back of the female, with his front feet resting on her metathorax, the second pair of feet

grasping her abdomen about its middle, his third pair of legs usually hanging freely extended, the tip of his abdomen being firmly attached to a slight pit on the ventral surface of the seventh abdominal segment of the female. The intromissive organ of the male is then protruded and placed between the oviscapt and the last three abdominal segments of the female. In this position the male remains for from 30 minutes to several hours. His copulating organ is then withdrawn, although he may still remain for a long time sitting upon the back of the female (fig. 4, plate 3). One male may copulate with several females during the same day. The male often gives periodical quivering movements while over the female, probably for the purpose of exciting her to the sexual act. He sometimes shows a slow, swinging motion during copulation.

The female is supplied with a long ovipositor, although it seems to be useless, as her eggs are allowed to fall carelessly to the ground as she sits motionless among the branches. The eggs resemble closely in size and color the seed of *Suriana,* as mentioned before, but differ from them considerably in shape. (Compare figs. 4*a* and 4*b* in plate 1.)

All of the observations on the habits of *Aplopus* in nature would seem to indicate that the behavior of this insect is as truly protective as is its close simulation of the branches on which it lives.

EXPERIMENTAL.

EXPERIMENTS WITH LIGHT.

Aplopus responds to light and darkness in a most interesting manner. The insects were observed to begin moving on the bushes by a much brighter light in the evening than that which served to stop their movement during the morning. They were seen feeding and crawling slowly about, at times, two hours before sunset; while they often came to rest more than half an hour before sunrise. The difference in intensities of the lights causing the two reactions is very great. It occurred to me that perhaps their response was periodic and not entirely due to the effect of light; that is, after being active for several hours during the night they become tired and cease to move for this reason, and not on account of any response to light, since the intensity of the morning light by which they come to rest is even less than that of the moonlight in which they are active. (The quality of the two lights is no doubt different.) The case is, however, made clear by the following experiment:

Sixty-five individuals in a wire cage had come to rest at $4^h\ 50^m$ a. m. At this time daylight was scarcely perceptible. It was much darker than when they had begun movement during the evening, or even the moonlight of the earlier part of the night. It would seem, then, that a physiological periodicity had had some influence on their behavior. To test this the cage was placed in a dark-room at 5 a. m. In less than half an hour all were

actively crawling, thus showing that they had responded to the faint light of approaching day and not to a tired condition. They continued to move actively for more than an hour in the dark-room, and were then put into the light, where they readily came to rest again.

The fact that they begin movement by brighter light in the evening and stop by paler or weaker light in the morning may possibly be associated with a similar habit of some birds, which go to their roosts by brighter light than that by which they leave.

A number of dark-room experiments were performed during the day to test the manner and time of response to light and darkness. The dark-room was one arranged for photographic work, having a red glass window that might be covered with a black oilcloth, so that no light was admitted. The door of the room opened into the closed side of the laboratory, thus permitting only weak diffused light to enter the room at any time. I was enabled to detect the first movement of the insects in the dark, as the gauze wire of the cage gave a perceptible clicking sound when their feet were moved upon it.

We may first consider the reactions of normal individuals. Since the experiments gave closely similar results, one may be recorded for illustration. Three females and two males were placed in the dark-room at $10^h\ 25^m$ a. m. After 15 minutes three were actively moving, while after 20 minutes all were in motion. The door was opened and light admitted at 11 a. m.; they came to rest in a little more than a minute, and remained so in spite of various loud noises until $11^h\ 11^m$ a. m., when the room was again darkened. The animals began again to move and all five were in active motion within 8 minutes. Bright daylight was thrown on them after all had been moving for 3 minutes; two were at rest in less than a minute, and all were quiet in about 2 minutes. When they had been at rest for 5 minutes the room was for the third time darkened, and after 11 minutes all were active. Light was then admitted and two ceased to move within 2 minutes, the others stopping after 5 minutes.

The dark-room was again closed at $11^h\ 45^m$ a. m. and left until $12^h\ 30^m$ p. m., at which time all of the insects were active. On admitting light they became motionless within 2 minutes. The dark-room was closed for the fifth time at $12^h\ 55^m$ p. m., after the five "walking-sticks" had been quiet for more than 20 minutes; 10 minutes after they had been in the dark two were moving, and all were in motion after 15 minutes or at $1^h\ 10^m$ p. m. Light was admitted at $1^h\ 11^m$ p. m., and all came to rest within 30 seconds, a very quick response. They were then exposed to light for 10 minutes, then again put into the dark-room. The first one did not begin to move until 17 minutes had elapsed; the others were moving after being in the dark 20 minutes. The first ones to move had disturbed others by striking against them, so that these probably moved earlier than they would have otherwise.

They were allowed to remain active for 10 minutes and were then placed in bright light, where they again stopped all movement in less than 30 seconds. They were observed closely for 10 minutes while in the light, and not a leg or antenna was moved, though some had stopped in apparently awkward positions.

The foregoing experiment was repeated several times on different individuals and at various periods during the day, always giving similar results. *Aplopus* is thus seen to become active in the dark within from 10 to 20 minutes, and at times even more promptly. This activity is continued as long as it remains in the dark. When the insect is placed in bright light it promptly comes to rest within from less than 30 seconds in some cases to several minutes in others. *Aplopus* responds, therefore, more promptly to light than to darkness. The males appear to come to rest more readily than the females; they are also more active in the dark. These insects may readily be made to mate by placing a number of individuals of both sexes in a cage in the dark.

The question next arises whether responses to light and darkness are due to the action of the stimulus on the optic organs or to the effects of light on the body-surface of the insect as a whole. In attempting an answer to this question several experiments were performed. First, a number of *Aplopi* were chosen and their eyes were well covered with a lampblack paste until they were apparently blind. These individuals were then subjected to dark-room experiments. When only the compound eyes were blackened, the simple eyes being uncovered, they still responded in the dark-room, though slower than the control. On one occasion a male and three females were used; the male moved slightly after 15 minutes, though almost an hour had elapsed before all four individuals had become active.

When both the simple and compound eyes were blackened they responded still more slowly in the dark. Of four treated in this manner only one had moved after 30 minutes in the dark-room, and this one almost immediately came to rest again; so that after 50 minutes all were quiet, three of the four not having moved during this time. After 2 hours three were at rest and one was moving; one of the four had not moved at all during the two hours and the three that had moved did so only for a moment, not becoming really active, as they normally do in the dark-room.

To test further the importance of vision in responding to changes from light to dark, I determined to blacken the compound and simple eyes of a number of *Aplopi* during the night to ascertain in what manner they would respond when the daylight appeared. Six females and two males were placed in a cage to themselves and their eyes were painted at 9^h 40^m p. m., while they were all very active. At 5^h 30^m a. m. on the following morning three of the females and one of the males were actively moving. These animals were much more active than the control of about 50 individuals, all

of which were now at rest, although they were caged nearby so as to experience the same light conditions. At 6 o'clock four of the blind ones were still active, although the sun had been shining for half an hour. At 8 o'clock all were at rest, yet they were more than an hour later than the control in responding to the morning light. When these blind insects had been at rest for 2 hours they were placed in the dark-room, where all became active after about an hour. They were then brought into the light and assumed the attitude of rest within 12 minutes.

In the evening the ones with painted eyes became active 30 to 45 minutes earlier than the normal ones did. At 6^h 12^m p. m. not one of 50 normal insects had moved, while 5 of the 8 blind ones had been moving actively for 40 minutes. *Aplopi* probably appreciate light to some extent through their bodies, but more acutely by means of their eyes; thus night appears to come earlier and day later to the blind ones. The 2 blind males failed to pair with either of the 6 blind females, though normal males and females usually mated when they were caged together.

Blind and normal females were observed in their natural environment on *Suriana* bushes. Here the blind individuals also became active earlier in the evening than the normal ones.

When the strong light of a bull's-eye lantern is thrown on a normal one of these insects at night, it turns its head from side to side and gives evidence of seeing the light.

These experiments seem to show that *Aplopus* may respond to light and darkness through its general body surfaces, but that it does so much less readily, or slower, than by means of its optic organs.

EXPERIMENTS WITH LIGHT RAYS OF DIFFERENT LENGTHS.

It became desirable at this stage to know whether the insects responded to white light as a complex whole or to some of its constituent rays. Several experiments were conducted in the attempt to solve this problem.

Light was passed through a vessel containing carbon bisulphide, which serves to eliminate the ultra-violet rays. This is the well-known experiment first performed by Sir John Lubbock on ants. A dark-jar was arranged and two of the "walking-sticks" were placed in it. After they had been quiet for 10 minutes the jar was covered by a vessel containing sea-water in order to test the effect of the subdued light which was transmitted by the liquid. The animals under this condition remained motionless for 25 minutes. The vessel containing the sea-water was then removed, and the jar allowed to stand uncovered for 10 minutes. The insects still retained their daylight state of rest. A vessel containing carbon bisulphide was now placed over the jar, thus admitting daylight minus its ultra-violet rays. The *Aplopi* remained perfectly motionless in this light for 85 minutes and were then removed from the jar. It thus seems apparent that this insect is not

brought to rest by the ultra-violet rays of sunlight, since they do not move in the absence of such rays. They probably respond, therefore, to the visible rays of the spectrum.

Ten *Aplopi* were subjected to light transmitted through blue glass. (Spectroscopic analysis showed this glass to be impure, transmitting blue, green, and a little red and yellow.) The insects gave no definite response in this light, although during one experiment they became more active than usual, moving as if they were in the dark. Such a response was, however, not at all constant and I am inclined to think that the individuals of this experiment had become unduly excited from some other cause.

The influence of red light, containing possibly a little orange, was tried on ten *Aplopi*. This also failed to give any definite reaction. It seems likely, then, that these insects respond to sunlight as a complex light and not to a limited number of its rays—at any rate not to the few tested above.

EXPERIMENTS WITH SOUND.

Aplopus seems indifferent to loud noises; a loud voice or a strong rap upon a board is apparently unheard. A 32-caliber pistol was fired three times within 18 inches of three active individuals, one male and two females, yet they gave no indication of having heard the pistol. Before the pistol was fired the second time the "walking-sticks" were made to assume awkward positions; still they remained motionless after the noise.

MOVEMENT EXPERIMENTS.

Aplopus may be made to assume almost any position, it matters not how apparently awkward, and it will often retain such a position for a long period of time. Such a response may be very useful in causing this animal to be passed unnoticed. If it be shaken or struck while resting on a limb it will not at first scamper off as most insects would, but remains perfectly still in almost any position it may chance to occupy after the shock. When such a disturbance is repeated for several times, *Aplopus* may become excited and either drop or attempt to run away. One of either pair of legs may be lifted from its foothold and be straightened or twisted backward or forward and left with the foot free and unsupported. The leg may remain motionless in such a position for long periods of time. Two or even three legs can be raised in such a fashion, and *Aplopus* will stand motionless on its remaining foothold. Not more than three of its feet can be raised at any one time, since it is unable to support its long body upon only two legs. The antennæ may be directed in any direction the observer may wish and the insect will permit them to remain in such a position. One may actually lift an unexcited *Aplopus* by its long mesothorax and slowly place it back down upon a flat surface, where it will remain for 10 minutes or more with its legs pointing upward. A second individual may be placed in a similar manner over the first, and both will remain motionless for many minutes. As mentioned above, they show a death-feigning reaction.

This insect suggests to one a papier-maché imitation with wire legs which may be bent or twisted in almost any manner and put in any position. It could scarcely be more stick-like.

When walking, *Aplopus* often stops and waves its antennæ about in a circle, apparently feeling for some object in front of it. If the antennæ strike an object, a stick or a leaf, the first pair of legs reach forward and attempt to grasp it and pull the body of the insect up to it. When the insects have climbed to the top of a branch they usually wave their antennæ, trying to find some object on which to continue their upward journey. The antennæ of several individuals were cut away close to their proximal joints. The insects were slightly excited by the operation, but soon moved off, using their first pair of legs as feelers, stopping at intervals and waving either the right or left leg and at times circling both legs in front of the head, just as if the legs were efficient antennæ. One of the first pair of legs was removed, and the remaining one then served the purpose of a feeler. The other first leg was then removed, leaving the animal without antennæ or either first leg. The insect now progressed in a slower but surprisingly normal fashion upon only four legs. The point of especial interest is that first the one and then the other of the second pair of legs was raised and circled about as an antenna or feeler. Both of these legs could not be so used at any one time, since the insect is unable to stand on less than three legs. Normal insects were never observed to use either of the second pair of legs as feelers.

The eyes of such a four-legged, antennaless animal were blackened so that it was unable to see. This confused the subject considerably and it turned several times in a circle before being able to progress straight forward. The progress was then slow and cautious. Such an *Aplopus* often turned its head from side to side, as if attempting to see; it also moved the stumps of its antennæ and legs. It was able to climb among the branches and feed in a typical manner. On the following day it showed marked improvement in its ability to progress. When at rest these crippled individuals directed the remaining proximal portions of their antennæ and first legs forward, just as though they were assuming the attitude with legs and antennæ pointing straight out in front of the head, which is so typical for normal individuals.

A strong electric current causes *Aplopus* to move actively and may often cause its legs to kick violently for some seconds.

MATING OF MALES WITH A PORTION OF A FEMALE ABDOMEN ATTACHED TO A STICK.

Many experimenters have attempted in various ways to determine through what senses the male insect locates and mates with the female. Among the moths and butterflies the sexes are sometimes differently colored

and observers have claimed that the adornment of the male or of the female was a factor in the selection of the other sex. This manner of viewing the case was seriously questioned by some interesting experiments performed by Mayer in 1900.[1] A number of female moths were placed in an open-mouth glass jar covered by netting and five males when liberated 100 feet away flew to the jar. The experiment was then repeated with the jar inverted, so as to close the opening. This time the males did not approach, although the females were visible through the glass. It thus appears that the male moth finds the female by the sense of smell rather than the sense of sight. Other females were inclosed in a box with an open chimney, and the males flew to the chimney, although the females were not visible. When abdomens of females were cut off, the males would fly to these rather than to the winged bodies. If the antennæ of the male be removed he does not go to the female.

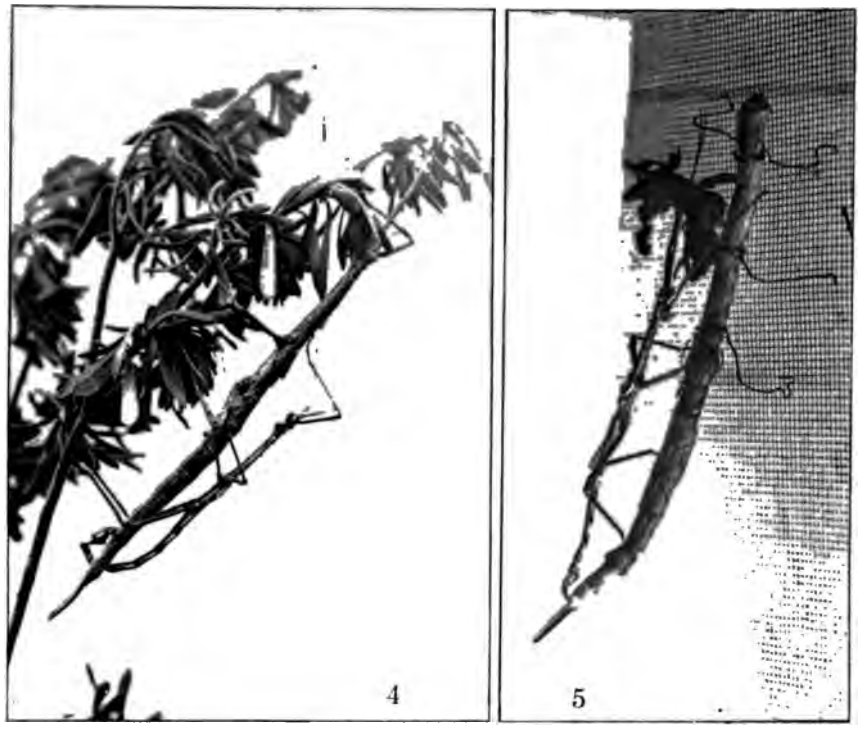
Mayer also glued the wings of a male over the wings of a female, so that she appeared like a male; nevertheless she was found by a male and mated with normally. Males would pay no attention to other males with female wings, but would pair readily with a female both of whose wings had been cut away.

In all of these experiments, however, the male and female were in healthy conditions during mating, so that they were capable of movement or actions by which the sexes might excite one another. Dr. Mayer informs me that during his experience a male would not mate with a fatally mutilated or dying female.

I wished to conduct an experiment that would eliminate the possibility of anything like a courtship or psychical action between the sexes. Since it seems to be the odor of the abdomen of the female that first attracts the male, I concluded to make papier-maché imitation females and smear the abdomen of these with juices from the abdomen of mature females; then, on caging a number of males with these imitation females, pairing might take place. The papier-maché imitations could not be obtained, however, so this experiment was abandoned, though it is probably well worth trying with a number of insects.

It was then decided to construct an artificial female by fastening a portion of the abdomen of a mature female *Aplopus* on to a small stick. A *Suriana* stick was cut that approximated in thickness the female's body and supported on six wire legs. One end of the stick was trimmed to a conical point and the abdomen of a female minus the first segment was pushed on over this conical end and made fast by winding thread about it. An abdomen thus attached to a stick will remain alive and is capable of moving slightly, and indeed defecating after more than 24 hours. The head and

[1] Mayer, A. G. On the mating instinct in moths. Annal. and Mag. Nat. History, v, 1900.



[illegible] transmission organ but still

[illegible] while

thorax also continue to live and crawl about in the usual manner for several days after the abdomen has been removed.

I induced two male aplopi to pair with such a "stick-female" in a perfectly normal manner (text-fig. 1 and plate 3, fig. 5). The experiment was performed as follows: It had been found, if a male was separated from a normal female while mating with her, that they would remate after a short time if placed in the dark. It had also been found by a previous unsuccessful experiment that the abdomen should be from a female that was mature, but that had not been mated with. This in mind, five males and ten females were put into a dark-room, where after 12 minutes one of the males had paired with a female. The pair was separated and the abdomen of the female cut off at the joint between the first and second segments and fixed

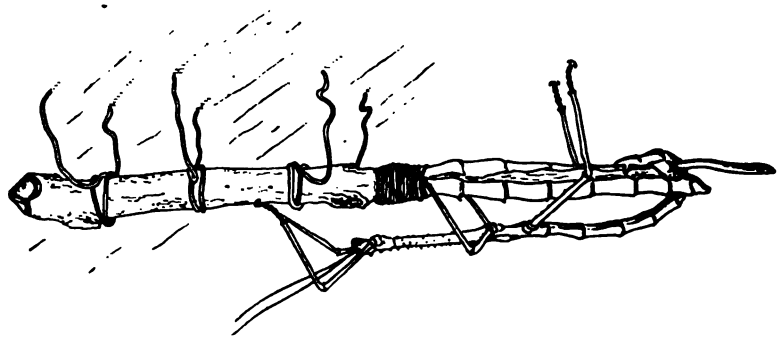


FIG. 1.—Drawing of male *Aplopus* in full copulating attitude with the end of a female abdomen fixed to a wire-legged stick.

to the stick with wire legs as described above. All of the females were now removed from the cage and the abdomen on the wire-legged stick was attached to the side of the cage in a vertical position and placed in the dark-room with four males.

After 1.5 hours the "stick-female" had not been disturbed by any of the males. It was now moved and placed in a horizontal position, as if holding to the gauze-wire top of the cage by its legs, with its body suspended, the attitude of any insect while clinging to the under side of a horizontal surface (fig. 1). *In such a position the abdomen was mated with in less than an hour.* The male in this instance was not the same individual that had previously mated with the entire female. He was in a perfectly normal copulating attitude, his organ of intromission being inserted between the oviscapt and the raised end of the female abdomen, as is shown in figure 1. Figure 5, plate 3, is a photograph of the pair, although here the male has withdrawn his intromissive organ on account of the disturbance caused by shifting the cage into a favorable light for photographing. This male was finally, by the movements of the cage, made to leave the "stick-female."

A point of some interest is that *Aplopus* seems to prefer the female to occupy a horizontal position in mating. During the first experiment with the " stick-female " it was placed in a vertical position and caged with males in the dark for two days without a result. In the experiment above the " stick-female " was first placed vertically and remained so for 1.5 hours without attracting a male. When it was changed to a horizontal position a male paired with it in less than an hour. All of the normal pairs observed were in a more or less horizontal position. It may be that the attitudes of the male are difficult to assume unless the female stands horizontally.

The cage with the " stick-female " and four males was again returned to the dark-room and after 2.5 hours a second male was found standing on the decoy. He remained in this position for over 3 hours, which was a much longer time than I had known a male to stand over a normal female without copulating with her. After this time, however, he began the usual mating movements and copulated perfectly with the abdomen. This was, then, the second time that the amputated abdomen of the female had been paired with, and each time by a different male. No doubt, therefore, remains that the male *Aplopus* may pair normally with the female without any " communication," " courtship," or psychical processes having taken place between them.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.

1. The habits of *Aplopus mayeri* on its food-plant *Suriana maritima* are as truly protectively adapted as is its singular stick-like appearance. The large females in their color and shape resemble the stem of this plant; the males are greenish and well concealed among the leafed twigs, while the eggs are peculiarly similar to the seeds of *Suriana* in size and color, although differing in shape. The insect is nocturnal and only occasionally moves in the daylight; then as a rule with a slow, waving motion suggesting the movement of a branch swinging in a light breeze. To escape enemies it may fall bodily from its position and become lost among the lower branches of the shrub, or at times it may fall entirely to the ground, where it will lie motionless for several minutes as if feigning death.

2. *Aplopus* becomes active by a much brighter light in the evening than that by which it comes to rest in the morning. Both reactions are, however, responses to light and not to a physiological periodicity, as may be shown with dark-room experiments. If these insects are blinded by painting their eyes with lampblack paste, they still respond to light and darkness, although much slower than normally.

3. They gave no response to sunlight lacking the ultra-violet rays, and were equally indifferent to red and blue lights, acting in all as though they were in ordinary daylight.

4. *Aplopus* gives no indication of hearing sounds of various intensities.

5. These insects during the day, while inactive, may be made to assume

an almost endless variety of positions, any of which they will maintain for a considerable period of time. They may actually be piled over one another, with their backs down and legs extended in the air, as if they were inanimate sticks. Such stick-like indifference may often assist them to pass unnoticed by enemies that might otherwise be attracted by their movements.

6. While moving about, the antennæ are often waved or circled in front of their heads, as if feeling the way. Should the antennæ be removed, the forelegs are readily pressed into service as feelers, these being waved much as if they were true antennæ. If now the first pair of legs are removed it is interesting to find that the legs of the second pair are alternately waved about and used as feelers, although normal insects were never seen to use either leg of the second pair in such a manner. *Aplopus*, considering the length of its body, progresses remarkably well with only four legs. If such a four-legged, antennaless individual has its eyes blinded, it becomes much confused and often turns in a circle, and twists its head from side to side as it walks. It improves in its movements with practice.

7. The abdomen of a mature female was cut off between the first and second segments and tied to a stick which was supported on wire legs. Males in a dark-room were found to copulate in a normal manner with this amputated female abdomen fastened on the stick. This is a unique case of a male insect's pairing with a removed portion of the female. Such an experiment makes it evident that a courtship or psychical response is not essential between the two sexes in mating.

III. STUDIES OF TISSUE GROWTH.
1. ON EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF THE RATE OF REGENERATION IN CASSIOPEA XAMACHANA (BIGELOW).

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29 text figures.

AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF THE RATE OF REGENERATION IN CASSIOPEA XAMACHANA (BIGELOW).

By Charles R. Stockard.

INTRODUCTION.

The suggestion has been advanced by Zeleny (1903 and 1905) that the greater the degree of injury, up to a certain limit, the more rapid will be the rate of regeneration. Zeleny's studies were based on the regeneration of the limbs in crustacea and the arms of the brittle-star, *Ophioglypha*. He was unable to offer any satisfactory explanation of why the regeneration rate increased with the amount of injury, but advanced several suggestive hypotheses which are subject to experimental test. First, he pointed out that the animal with the greater number of appendages removed might exercise the regenerating ones more vigorously than does the animal with the smaller number removed. In other words, activity should increase the rate of regeneration in animals. Child (1904) had also been led to think that some regulating influence was exerted over regenerating tissue by movement and nerve impulses in the flat-worm, *Leptoplana*. I have succeeded in devising two different ways of testing the influence of rest and activity on the regenerating tissues of the medusa and find no increase in the rate of regeneration to result from activity.

It was also suggested that the amount of available food might regulate the rate of regeneration. Those crayfish most injured have more food to draw from, since the other appendages are not present to take their share of it. Morgan (1906) has subjected this question to thorough investigation and finds that the amount or rate of differentiation of the regenerating organ is independent of the food supply, although the size of the organ is greater in well-fed individuals than in starved ones. "So long as there is enough food material in the blood or other fluids of the body to allow growth to take place at all it goes on at a rate determined by the peculiarities of each level, and largely independent of the food supply." Here Morgan mentions one of the most interesting points connected with this subject—that is, the influence of different levels of the body, or of an organ, on the rate of regeneration. In the fish's caudal fin it was found that new tissues regenerated faster the nearer the cut was to the base of the fin, and slower the nearer

the cut to the free end of the fin. At first thought this statement seems only a different way of saying, "the greater the amount of injury the more rapid will be the rate of regeneration." This is not true, however, as it was shown that the rate of regeneration varied with the shape of the cut in a manner not always correlated with the extent of the injury. Experiments will be recorded in the present paper which seem to contrast the two factors distinctly, as well as to show the peculiar influence of the level at which the cut is made.

Again, Zeleny offers the interesting conjecture that the uninjured chelæ may be assumed to exert a retarding influence upon the growth or regeneration of all the others. When one chela is removed the number of uninjured limbs remaining is greater than when both chelæ and the last two pairs of walking-legs are removed. The retarding influence with one chela gone, if the supposition be true, is greater than it is when more limbs are removed and correspondingly the rate of regeneration in the former is slower than in the latter case. Such an explanation when modified might be applied to regeneration in the salamander, the fish, and the medusa in the following way: When these animals are cut at various levels they regenerate faster the farther the cut surface, within certain limits of course, is from the extremity or limits of the animal's body. A fish's tail-fin grows faster from a straight cut near the base than from a similar cut near the end of the fin. The medusa regenerates tissue faster the farther away from the periphery the cut is made, as though the more tissue removed the less uninjured body-surface remained to exert a retarding influence.

The above considerations suggest the question of the limits of growth; as the body nears its adult or normal size the rate of growth becomes slower. It is also true that the regenerating tissue grows slower as it reaches the limits of the former body-surface. Morgan (1906) has expressed this idea as follows:

> If we can find the explanation for the cessation of growth at the proper terminus we can probably find also an explanation for the difference in the rate at different levels, for, as can be shown, the two things appear to be one and the same. In other words, as the new part grows larger its materials change, and this change is of such a kind that it leads to the cessation of growth. Hence starting under different conditions at different levels the same end result will be reached in all cases, and when the terminus is reached the growth should slowly decline, as we find in fact that it does.

Emmel (1906 and 1907) has arrived at opposite conclusions after a study of regeneration and molting in the lobster from those cited above as obtained by Zeleny on the crayfish. Scott (1907), from a study of regeneration on the fins of *Fundulus*, reaches conclusions differing both from those of Zeleny and Emmel as well, since he finds that the degree of injury exerts no influence whatever over the rate of regeneration in the fish's fin. Be this as it may, the fact remains that in the salamander, the fish, the earthworm,

and the medusa the rate of regeneration does vary under various conditions of injury, but depends upon the body-level at which the cut is made.

The crustacea seem rather unsatisfactory forms for the study of such problems as the rate of regeneration. They must molt before the regenerating portion can be observed and the time between molts is often greater than the time which would be expected as necessary for the given amount of regeneration to take place. There is likely a period of cessation of regenerative growth preceding each molt. Animals which have a continuous growth of regenerating tissue seem much better adapted to these studies.

The experiments here recorded were conducted in the Laboratory of Marine Biology of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, at Dry Tortugas, Florida, during the summer of 1907. I wish to express my thanks to the Director of the Laboratory, Dr. Alfred G. Mayer, for many kindnesses extended me while there.

MATERIAL.

The rhizostomous scyphomedusa *Cassiopea xamachana* is very hardy. It attains a large size, 15 or 20 cm. in diameter, and is particularly suited to regeneration studies, as several experiments or cuts may be performed on one and the same individual where the conditions are as near similar as would be possible to obtain. Further, since all portions of the disk seem capable of regeneration one may thus work on the animal's body as well as on its tentacle-like appendages. Of exceptional importance is the fact that the circular disk will admit of variously patterned cuts which are impossible on animals with a differently shaped body. Finally, the disk pulsates rhythmically in a manner subject to the control of the experimenter, thus enabling him to test the influence of motion, or activity, on the regenerating tissue in a way not offered by any other animal yet experimented upon.

These medusæ are easily kept for long periods of time in small aquaria by merely changing the water every two or three days. They live for some time without taking food. One may collect them in abundance from the moat which surrounds the old Fort Jefferson at the Tortugas Islands. The water in this moat is about 4 to 6 feet deep, being rather stagnant at times. Here *Cassiopea* seems to thrive, and large numbers of them are to be seen lying upon the bottom with their mouth-arms turned upwards, resembling bunches of dark-colored moss.

RATE OF REGENERATION FROM THE PERIPHERY OF THE DISKS WHEN CUT AT VARIOUS DISTANCES FROM THE MARGIN.

It is well to consider first the less complex cases in which an attempt was made to determine the difference in regeneration rates from cut surfaces on the disk of *Cassiopea* at various distances from the margin. Medium-sized medusæ were selected for the experiments, and the cut consisted in each case of the removal of a peripheral strip from the entire disk. Such an

operation leaves the jelly-fish without marginal sense-organs and, therefore, its rhythmical contractions cease until a slight epithelial rim has regenerated, which serves to reëstablish the pulsation. This new tissue is itself unable to contract, yet it is the seat of the stimulus which causes the disk to pulsate.

Two jelly-fish, each about 86 mm. in diameter, were cut around their entire periphery so as to remove a strip of tissue 10 mm. across (fig. 1). Two other medusæ were cut, in a similar manner as near as possible, and in addition their mouth-arms were removed, so that they were entirely de-

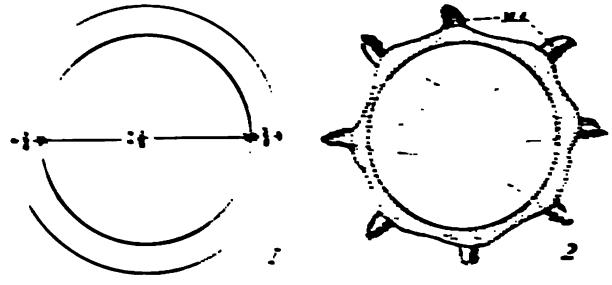


FIG. 1.—Diagram showing method of cutting.

FIG. 2.—Showing how strips were regenerated [illegible] from the periphery. New tissue [illegible] mouth-arms [illegible]

TABLE 1.—*Regeneration from the cut periphery of the medusa-disk after removal of circular strips of various width.*

Date.	Remarks.	Exp. 1.	Exp. 1*a*	Exp. 2.	Exp. 2*a*.	Exp. 3.	Exp. 3*a*.	Exp. 4.
June 13	Disk diameter before operation.	86.7	86.7	86.7	64	86.7	86.7	90
June 13	Width of removed margin.....	10	10	10*	10*	16.5	16.5	28
June 19	Width of new tissue	3.3	3.3	2.5	Dead.	4	4	4.2
June 21	Width of new tissue	3.3	3.3	2.5	.....	5	5	4.2
June 23	Width of new tissue	3.3	3.3	3	.....	6.7	6.7	Dead.
June 25	Width of new tissue	4.3	4.7	3.3	.....	6.7	5.9	.....
June 27	Width of new tissue	4.7	5	5	.....	6.7	5	.....
June 30	Width of new tissue	4.7	4.7	5	.....	5	5	.....
July 3	Width of new tissue	4.7	4.7	.....	.....	5	4.2	.....
July 6	Disk diameter.....	51.5	45.5	29	.....	29	39	.....
July 6	Width of new tissue	5	4.5	4.7	.....	4.6	4.2	.....
July 9	Width of new tissue	5	4.5	5	.....	4.4	3.3	.....
July 12	Width of new tissue	5	5	Dead.	.....	4.7	3.3	.....
July 18	Disk diameter.....	40.6	33.3	.....	.....	(†)	31.5	.....
July 18	Width of new tissue	5.1	4.7	.....	.....	5	3.3	.....

Date.	Remarks.	Exp. 4*a*.	Exp. 5.	Exp. 5*a*.	Exp 5*b*
June 13	Disk diameter before operation.	93.3	96.6	77	
June 13	Width of removed margin.	Disk center only remained.	All of disk removed.	Small strip of disk tissue left.	Same as 5*a*.
June 19	Width of new tissue.....	6.7	None.....	None.....	None.
June 21	Width of new tissue.....	6.7	None.....	Regenerating from disk tissue.	Regenerating from disk tissue.
June 23	Width of new tissue.....	6.7	None.....	Same as on 21st.	Same.
June 25	Width of new tissue.....	5.3	None.....	Film of tissue over entire top.	Almost same as 5*a*.
June 27	Width of new tissue.....	(thick) 4	None.....	Same as on 25th.	Same.
June 30	Width of new tissue.....	3	None.....	As on 25th.	As on 25th.
July 3	Width of new tissue.....	3	None.....	As on 25th.	Dead.
July 6	Disk diameter	21	.....	.....	.....
July 6	Width of new tissue.....	4	None.....	Thin film over top (aboral) surface of mouth-arms, regenerated from small pieces of disk tissue.	
July 9	Width of new tissue.....	3.3	None.....		
July 12	Width of new tissue.....	4.6	Dead.....		
July 18	Disk diameter	20	.....		
July 18	Width of new tissue.....	6.5	.....		

* Mouth-arms also removed. † Arched aborally, not measured.

It was observed that those portions of the regenerating rim which were touched or pressed against by the mouth-arms of the medusæ regenerated faster or grew out wider in a radial direction than the intermediate portions which were not so pressed by the arms (fig. 2). This condition may possibly be due to the mechanical pressure of the mouth-arms against such places causing them to thin or flatten out, thus giving a more rapid radial growth, whereas the entire mass of tissue may be no greater here than from other parts of the regenerating surface. I made no observations, however, at the time of the experiments to ascertain whether the new tissue was thin-

ner at these places where the mouth-arms pressed. Regeneration also proceeded at a faster rate in the irregularities of the cut surface. This case will be fully considered in a following section.

No. 2, which was cut in the same way as Nos. 1 and 1A and in addition had all of its mouth-arms removed, regenerated somewhat more slowly at first, although obviously the most injured of the three. Later, however, it showed almost as much regenerated tissue as either of the other two. During the observations this medusa showed a very peculiar condition; the periphery of the disk became arched aborally and the regenerating tissue was thus also directed aborally, being finally so folded over that the animal became cup-shaped (fig. 3). The regenerating tissue then grew toward the center, and by fusing the edges of its periphery changed the cup into a hollow sphere. This condition was also observed in several other experiments and may be explained thus: The muscles being slightly out of the normal condition of coördination, those expanding the disk act more strongly than the oral contractors and the periphery is thus gradually directed more and more aborally. The new regenerating tissue has a tendency to fuse if two of its surfaces are brought together so that when its periphery is folded aborally and the edges come together they fuse and form the hollow sphere. A similar balloon-like condition has been recorded by Hargitt (1899) in *Gonionemus*. Hargitt was unable to produce such a condition artificially, although he tried in several ways to do so.

FIG. 3.—*A*, top view of aborally arched disk; new tissue (*R*) regenerating from cut periphery grows toward center. *B*, cross-section of such specimen. *C*, new tissue completely fused over top, converting former disk into hollow sphere.

Two other medusæ, designated in the table as Nos. 3 and 3A, had a strip 16.5 mm. wide taken from the peripheries of their disks. These disks are, therefore, more injured than the first and they are also cut at a deeper level. After 6 days they had regenerated a rim of tissue slightly wider than that of Nos. 1 and 1A, and after 10 days the rims of the latter were only half as wide as those of Nos. 3 and 3A. From this time the periphery of No. 3 became abnormally arched and its regeneration was slightly modified, yet it continued ahead of Nos. 1 and 1A. The disk of 3A remained flat and the regenerated border here increased rapidly in width for 12 days and then commenced to thicken and ceased to grow in width; the sense-organs began

to appear after 23 days. The disk had resumed its rythmical pulsation in 2 days after the operation. It will be found by a study of the table that after about 12 days the regenerated tissue began to decrease in width. This fact may be explained by the thickening which the new tissue commences to undergo at this time, or again it may result from the causes which tend to make the entire disk gradually decrease in diameter, until after 35 days it is little more than half as large as it was when the experiment began.

Nos. 4 and 4A were cut so that only the center of the disk covering the bases of the mouth-arms remained. From No. 4 a strip almost one-third as wide as the entire diameter of the medusa was cut away. This disk was 90 mm. in diameter before the operation and only 34 mm. after the removal of the strip. It must also be kept in mind that the cut surface at this level is very thick, since the disk is thickest at the center and becomes thinner as the margin is approached. No. 4 died soon after the experiment started, as is indicated in the table. No. 4A was healthy and within 6 days had regenerated a rim of tissue from its cut surface which was almost twice as wide as that observed in any of the above experiments. After 12 days, here again, the regenerated strip ceased to increase in width, but continued to become thicker. Finally, as is shown in table 1, the rim of new tissue actually began to decrease in width as it had in 3A.

The deep-cut surfaces when regenerating first grow a wide, thin rim of tissue which finally begins to thicken at the expense of radial growth till the normal thickness of the disk at the given level is reëstablished. It will be seen that regenerating tissue from a cut surface near the disk margin widens slowly, but almost continuously, as at this level the disk substance is very thin and no subsequent thickening of the regenerated tissue is necessary.

Three medusæ were now cut so that in two individuals only a small bit of disk remained attached to the mouth-arms and in the third the entire disk was removed. The object of such operations was to ascertain whether the mouth-arms were able to regenerate a disk, or disk-tissue. It was found that the very small portions of the disks which remained would regenerate new tissue, but the mouth-arms were incapable of regenerating from their bases, although they healed the wounded surfaces and lived for 29 days after the entire disk had been removed.

Other experiments on removing strips of various widths from the periphery were made and results closely similar to those above were obtained. One must then conclude that the disk of *Cassiopea* begins to regenerate its margin at a faster rate the nearer the cut is to the center of the disk. A small individual regenerates proportionately faster than a large one. These results are closely similar to those obtained by Morgan on the salamander, fish, and earthworm, and by comparison show that the rates of regeneration differ at different levels of the body, and further that (as in embryonic growth) the nearer the normal body-size or form is approached the slower

will be the rate of the regenerating growth. Miss King (1898) finds in *Asterias* that the rate of regeneration is greatest from the disk and decreases directly towards the tip of an arm. It is also true that those medusa-disks cut nearer the center are the greatest injured and according to Zeleny would be expected to regenerate their removed tissue fastest, just as they really do. It so happens that the difference in level and the amount of injury are often closely associated. I shall, however, cite an experiment below which serves to contrast the two and shows the level of the cut to be the more important factor in regulating the rate of regeneration.

RATE OF REGENERATION FROM DIFFERENT PARTS OF VARIOUSLY SHAPED CUT SURFACES.

For the study of problems relating to the rates of growth from surfaces partially cut as compared with those entirely cut, and the rates of growth from different parts of the same cut surface, *Cassiopea* offers exceptional opportunity, since the disk-body itself may be cut in sundry patterns and the regeneration rate observed in the several cases. Morgan (1902 and 1906), from a study of regeneration in the fish's fin, has contributed a number of valuable observations bearing on the question in point. The caudal fins of *Fundulus* and *Carassius* were trimmed in different ways, and it was found that partially cut surfaces regenerated slower than entire surfaces cut at the same level; also that new tissue grew out at a faster rate from certain parts of all cut surfaces than from other parts. Since Morgan's experiments were confined to the manner of regeneration from fins or appendages, I determined to make similar cuts upon the disk or "body" of the medusæ to ascertain whether the same principles in regeneration would hold. The results show not only that the same manner of regeneration is adhered to in the body and in the appendages of the two animals, but further, that the forces controlling or determining the regeneration rate on various parts of the cut surfaces act similarly in animals as different as fish and medusæ, almost at the opposite ends of the animal series.

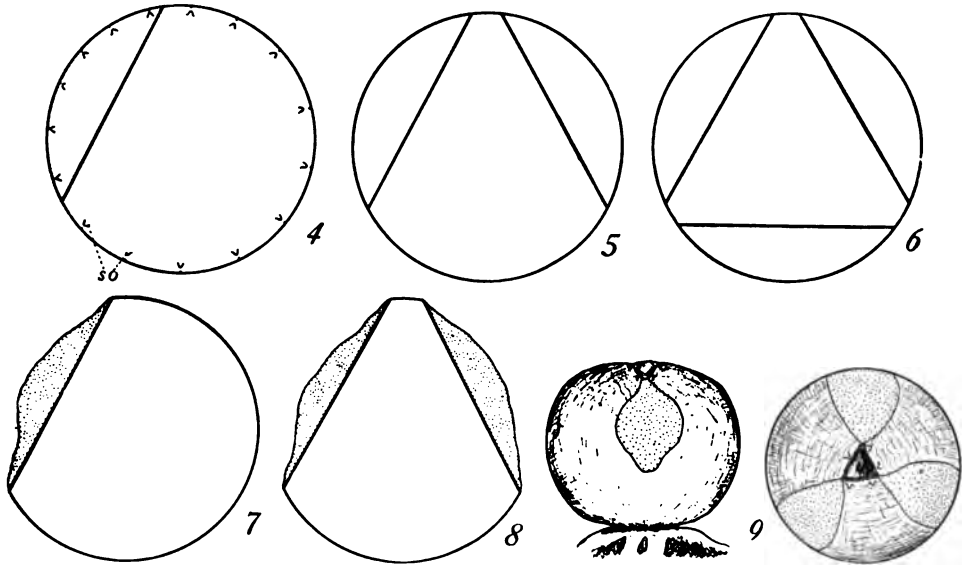
Straight cuts were made upon the disks of medusæ in the following ways: First, a single piece was cut from the disk, as shown in figure 4. Second, two such pieces were cut off as indicated in figure 5, and lastly three pieces were removed as in figure 6. Five individuals were cut in each way and different-sized pieces were removed. The course of regeneration followed by each of the cuts in all of the 15 medusæ was practically the same. The history of one set, consisting of one of each kind of individual, will answer for all.

The specimen having one cut will be designated as A, the two cuts as B, and the three cuts as C. From A a portion of the disk was removed that measured 32 mm. wide at its broadest place and included 6 of the 16 marginal sense-organs. Four days later the regenerated tissue from the cut

was shaped as indicated in figure 7. The middle part of the cut, which is the deepest part and nearest the disk center, regenerates faster than the sides. After a number of days the middle part goes a little slower and when the cut is 20 days old the regenerated tissues from different parts of the cut surface are about the same widths, although the middle portion is the thicker.

Sense-organs commence to form from the new tissue at this time. The new tissue, being weaker than the other parts of the disk, is sometimes pulled aborally and somewhat folded or puckered, so that it is difficult to measure accurately, though during the first 25 days of the experiment the regeneration rate at different portions of the cut may be accurately measured.

The manner of regeneration from the two cut surfaces of B is identical with that from the single cut of A. In both, then, the rate of regeneration



FIGS. 4, 5, 6—Diagrams indicating ways in which disks were cut to give one, two, and three straight cut surfaces. *SO*, sense-organs.

FIGS. 7, 8.—New tissue (stippled).

FIG. 9.—Top and side views of disk cut as shown in fig. 6. During regeneration the intact corners became aborally arched, modifying the manner of growth and producing hollow spheres with opening at top.

is retarded at the marginal corners of the cut, so that the mid-portion grows ahead of the lateral parts (see fig. 8).

The three cut surfaces of C (fig. 6) follow the same course of regeneration as do those of A and B. Disks cut in this way, however, seem especially inclined to turn their three intact corners aborally, and in so doing the cut surfaces, instead of remaining straight form angles. It will be shown more in detail later that regeneration proceeds much more rapidly in an angular cut than from a straight surface, since the two sides of the

angle seem to reënforce one another in regeneration, a kind of summation of regeneration occurring. Through such a process the disk is converted into a ball-shaped body with a small triangular opening at the top, where the three uninjured corners are brought almost together (fig. 9).

It will be recalled that the fins of the gold-fish and *Fundulus*, when cut straight across, begin to regenerate their new tissues faster in the middle of the cut and slower near the corners, a fashion identical with that followed by the disk of the jelly-fish.

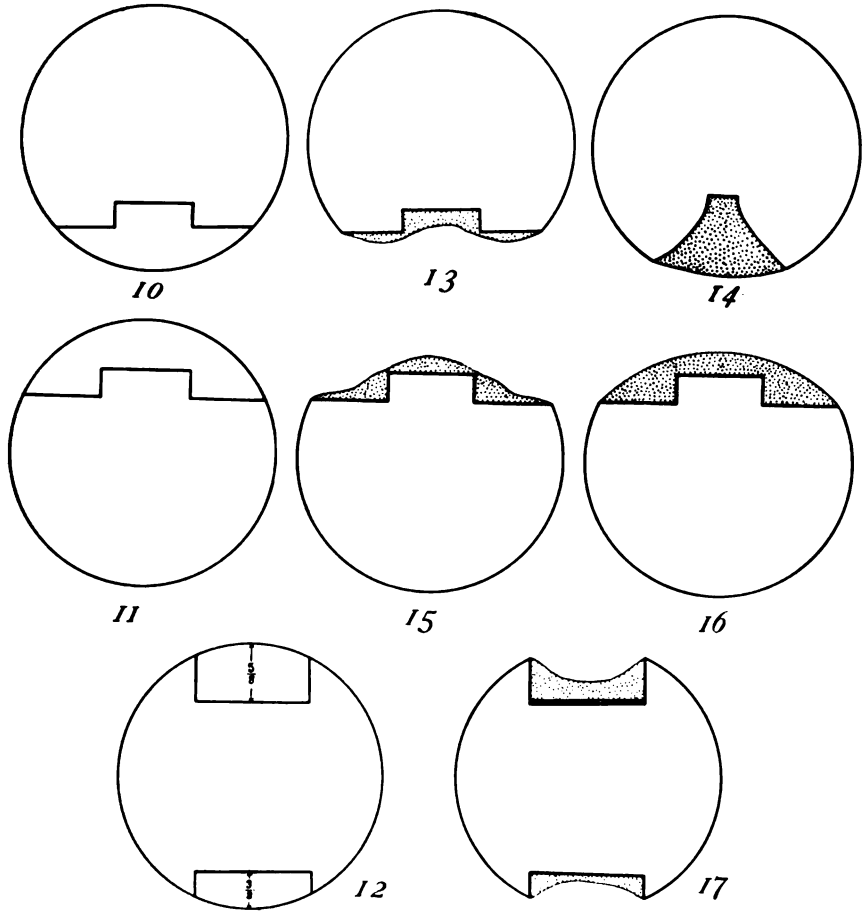
The medusæ-disks were next cut in such patterns as to give what Morgan has termed "partial cut surfaces" (figs. 10, 11, and 12). Such cuts were varied in the width of their different parts as well as in depth. Many individuals were prepared in the several ways.

The deep part of the cut shown in figure 10 must be wide, since it shows a strong tendency to close its walls together after a week or two (fig. 14). The history of the regeneration from such a cut surface may be recorded in detail. The cut was made so that the bottom of the deep part was 23 mm. from the peripheral margin at its most distant point; this part was 26 mm. in width; the lateral shallow parts of the cut were each 19 mm. wide and 10 mm. below the margin at their middle point. Four days after the operation the regeneration was perceptibly greater from the deep-cut surface than from the lateral shallow surfaces, and within six days the middle part had almost overtaken the lateral surfaces (fig. 13). The regeneration in the deep cut really takes place from three surfaces, the bottom and the two sides of the cut, as here there is free opportunity for lateral regeneration, thus differing from the case of the fish's fin, where the fin-rays seem to prevent lateral regeneration, since they are only capable of growing out from the stumps of the old rays.

Ten days after the operation there was 13 mm. of regenerated tissue from the deep cut and only 10 mm. from the lateral shallow parts. After 14 days the deep cut had become so pulled together that there was only 5 mm. between its original walls. When 20 days old the regenerated tissue had rounded across its free margin and was now growing out as one piece. After 23 days the old sides of the deep cut were only 3.3 mm. apart; the regenerated tissue over it measured only 10 mm. and over the shallow parts 7 mm. This loss in width may be either due to the thickening of the new tissue which is taking place, or may be on account of the general decrease in size which the medusa has undergone, measuring now 63 mm. in diameter, whereas it was 77 mm. across when the experiment began. The new tissue from the deep cut after the twenty-third day began again to increase slowly in width until when 35 days old it was 14.5 mm. wide and that from the shallow parts was 8 mm. The original walls of the deep cut were almost drawn together, being only 2.3 mm. apart. The entire cut had tended to contract, so as to take an angular form, as illustrated in figure 14. All

medusæ operated on in this fashion regenerated similarly to this one. Their manner of regeneration may then be briefly summarized as follows:

The rate of proliferation of new tissue is faster from the deep partial-cut surface and slower from the lateral surfaces. The angles of the deep partial cut assist in the regeneration process and thereby help to make it proceed faster from this portion of the cut, whereas the corners of the lateral cuts seem to exert a retarding influence over the rate of regeneration



FIGS. 10, 11, 12.—Diagrams showing manner of cutting medusæ disk to test regeneration rates from partial cut surfaces.

FIGS. 13, 14.—Stippled areas indicate course of regeneration from cut surface of pattern, fig. 10.

FIGS. 15, 16.—Course of regeneration from such a cut as shown in fig. 11.

FIG. 17.—Showing manner of regeneration from fig. 12.

(see fig. 13). Such a conclusion is identical with that reached by Morgan in his study of the regeneration from similar cut surfaces on the fish's fin.

We may now consider regeneration from surfaces cut in practically the opposite manner from those just recorded. The lateral cuts are deep, with a high middle tongue-piece (fig. 11). Many medusæ cut in this fashion regenerated tissue in a similar way. The exact history of one of the individuals is as follows: The disk was cut so that the lateral surfaces were 26 and 41 mm. wide, respectively, and the high tongue-piece between them was 14.5 mm. wide and 10 mm. high, or above the level of the side cuts (fig. 11). Six days after the operation the newly proliferated tissue was widest on the two side portions and narrow from the middle piece. The corners of the high middle part seemed to exert a retarding influence on the regenerative processes, as did also the outer or marginal corner of the lateral cuts. The inner corners of the side cuts were, on the other hand, the places of greatest regeneration, as no doubt the lateral and basal surfaces both contributed to the process (fig. 15). Nine days after the operation the regenerated tissue from the lateral cuts was 5 mm. wide, while that from the middle piece was only half as much. On the twelfth day the conditions were about the same. The fifteenth day gave the side parts 7 mm. of new tissue, while the middle part had proliferated tissue only 2.3 mm. wide. At this time the old border of the middle piece is 8 mm. wide, while the lateral parts are 16 and 5 mm. respectively. When 21 days old the regenerated tissue had rounded its border (fig. 16) and measured 7 mm. deep over the side cuts and 3.5 mm. over the middle part. From this time until the twenty-seventh day the middle part continued to grow out new tissue, while the side portions seemed to have completed themselves.

Regeneration from such a cut surface may be thus summarized. The lateral cut surfaces produce new tissue faster than the high middle piece. The outer corners of all the cut surfaces seem to exert a retarding influence on the rate of regeneration, while from the inner corners of the lateral cuts new tissue is formed at a very rapid rate, which is probably due to a summation of regeneration. It will be again recalled that an identical condition exists in the regeneration from similar cuts on the fish's tail.

Medusæ were also cut in such a way as to test the rate of growth at different levels on one and the same individual. Here, obviously, the conditions of nutrition and vigor must be as nearly identical as possible. At one place on the rim of the disk a piece was cut out which was 10 mm. deep at its broadest part. Opposite this cut, or 180° away, a second piece of the disk, including an arc of the same extent, was cut away to a depth of 16 mm. from the highest point of the arc (fig. 12). When one cut is narrower peripherally than the other, the rates of regeneration are not readily compared, since regeneration proceeds more rapidly from a narrow cut than from a wide one at the same level.

After six days the regenerating tissue was broader from the deep than from the shallow cut, although here it has a thicker base of tissue to grow

from; this is also true for the fish's fin, where the deeper cut has a thicker base. Two measurements of the regenerating tissue were made, since the thick base was not exactly a perpendicular surface. The one was from the edge of the old tissue on the aboral surface to the edge of the new tissue, which measured 5 mm. over the deep-cut surface; the other measurement was from the oral border of the old tissue to the margin of the regenerated tissue, 3.5 mm. wide. The rate of regeneration was fastest at the corners in these cuts, being 7 mm. wide at this place in the deep cut. The shallow cut showed 1.5 mm. of new tissue from its middle and 5 mm. from its corners (fig. 17). After 9 days the deep cut had regenerated tissue 7 mm. wide from its middle, while the shallow cut showed only 3.5 mm. of tissue. Both of the cuts were at this time 13 mm. in width peripherally. When 18 days old the cuts were 10 mm. across between the vertical edges of the old tissue, the deep cut had regenerated new tissue 7 mm. wide and the shallow 3.5 mm., or half as much. Here again regeneration proceeds in one and the same individual at a faster rate from the cut surface at the level nearer the disk-center than from a similar more distal cut.

I may now cite an experiment which was made to test whether medusæ would regenerate their sense-organs faster when consecutive ones were removed or when alternate ones were cut away. The experiment threw no light on this question, but the result was curious and for this reason may be mentioned. Two healthy medusæ, one with 16 and the other with 17 marginal sense-organs, were treated as follows: Four adjacent sense-organs were removed from one part of the disk and three alternate ones from the region opposite these. After 23 days no definite trace of regenerating sense-organs could be detected, so all of the remaining old sense-organs were cut away to ascertain whether the new ones were sufficiently regenerated to maintain the pulsation of the disks. The disks became perfectly still after the last one of the original sense-organs was cut off, and only after a period of 6 days was one individual slowly pulsating. This is peculiar, as when the entire peripheral border with all sense-organs is removed the newly regenerated tissue causes the disk to pulsate usually after two or three days. Further, a number of medusæ with regenerated margins had produced sense-organs from their new tissue, while the two above had not regenerated them from their old bases.

REGENERATION AFTER THE REMOVAL OF PIECES OF ORAL EPITHELIUM OF DIFFERENT SIZES AND AT DIFFERENT DISTANCES FROM THE DISK-CENTER—THE QUESTION OF "REGENERATIVE PRESSURE."

These experiments were carried out with the hope of testing whether or not "regenerative pressure," in the sense Morgan (1906) used the term, actually exists and exerts itself from the center radially to the periphery. In other words, is this force felt more towards the center and gradually

less, as the limits or periphery of the body is reached? This pressure is responsible for the "gradual slowing of regeneration as the normal form is approached, and it is apparent that this retardation will be the same, whether it occurs near the end of an old part or as a new part approaches completion." If this be true it ought also to follow that the pressure conditions of regenerative forces are greater in the center than at the periphery of the disk in *Cassiopea.*

In the experiments, only the oral epithelium and thin superficial muscle-layers were removed. It may be that such experiments are not conclusive, since this pressure might exert itself outward from the face or cross-cut area only, and not so clearly on the surface. At any rate, as will be seen, the results do not lend particular strength to the idea of greater regenerative pressure near the center.

Six medusæ were operated upon as follows: From the oral surfaces of two individuals, Nos. 1 and 1A, two rectangular pieces of epithelium and underlying muscle were removed. The removed tissues had the same width in a radial direction and were equidistant from the periphery, while one piece was longer than the other in the direction parallel to the circumference of the disk (fig. 18). If the pressure exerts itself only in a radial direction, then the two cuts should regenerate at the same rate independent of their peripheral lengths, since they are equally wide. Two other medusæ, Nos. 2 and 2A, had two equal-sized pieces removed from their oral surfaces, one piece being nearer the center than the other (fig. 19). The last two, Nos. 3 and 3A, had one piece running in a radial direction cut from each, as seen in figure 20.

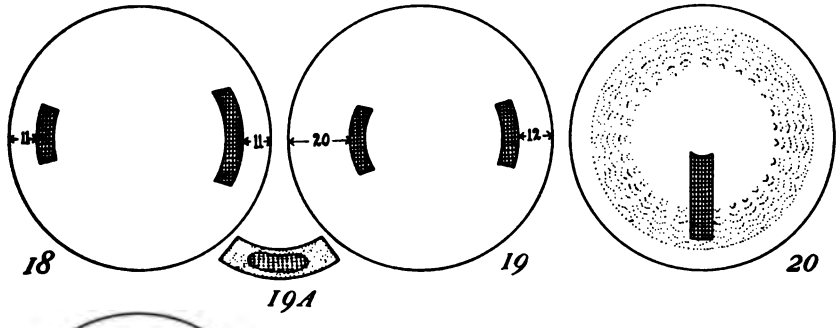
Mayer (1906) has shown that when the epithelium is scraped away on the oral surface of *Cassiopea* an electrical stimulus applied on one side of the abrasion is unable to pass over and stimulate the tissue on the other side. As soon, however, as a very delicate layer of tissue is regenerated over the cut place the stimulus will be transmitted across. This affords a delicate means of detecting the first trace of regeneration.

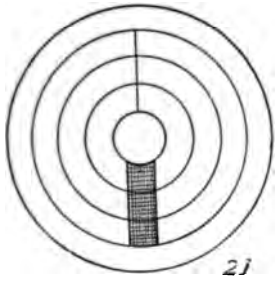
Twenty-four hours after the above operations No. 3 was scratched on its oral surface so as to divide it into a series of concentric rings (fig. 21). The rings were then scratched across at a place opposite the removed radial strip. The rings of tissue were thus broken at one place, so that no impulse could pass from one of their halves to the other unless tissue had regenerated over the radial injury sufficiently to conduct the stimulus. It would be expected that the inner ring should be the first to conduct. None of the injuries had regenerated sufficiently after 24 hours.

Two days after the operation Nos. 1 and 1A did not transmit across their injuries. No. 2 transmitted the stimulus across the inner area only, although this was equal in extent to the more peripheral injury. The clear, transparent regenerating epithelium could now be seen, and it was noticed

that the growth was greatest at the two ends instead of in the radial direction (fig. 19A). This is probably due to the corners being nearer together at these ends, and regeneration takes place from both sides of the angles, such a summation causing it to proceed faster.

Four days after the operation all of the scars had regenerated tissue sufficiently to cover them completely over. The smaller places had regenerated sooner than the larger ones, yet a comparison of rates of regeneration is difficult to make, since the wounds tend to draw their walls together and





FIGS. 18, 19, 20.—Positions and patterns of pieces of oral epithelium cut away to test force of regenerative pressure from disk-center radially outward. Fig. 19*A*, New tissue growing over rectangular wounds.

FIG. 21.—Manner of scratching circles through oral epithelium to test rate of regeneration from different parts of superficial radial wound.

thus close at the same time that the regeneration is in progress. On the whole this experiment is unsatisfactory.

A somewhat similar experiment was arranged to test the rates of regeneration of epithelial coverings over wounds of different sizes and others of the same size at different distances from the disk center. The sizes of the holes were regulated by means of a sharp cork-borer, which could be used to cut out small circles of exact diameters. Nos. 1 and 1A each had three circular wounds 10 mm. in diameter at 10, 16, and 20 mm. from the margin. Nos. 2 and 2A had three circles scraped, each about 24 mm. from the disk margin and over radii leading to the sense-organs. The circles were 7, 8.5, and 10 mm. in diameter. On 3 and 3A four circles each, 8.5 mm. in diameter, were scraped, 20 mm. from the margin, two of the wounds being over radii leading to sense-organs and two midway between such radii. All four are, however, immediately below radiating canals, so that the difference in regeneration rate, should any be observed, might be attributable to their different nervous connections (fig. 23).

Two days after the operation Nos. 1 and 1A showed their outermost circles with regenerated films about half over them; the inner circles were in the same condition, but the two circles occupying intermediate distances from the margins had regenerated films of epithelium which entirely covered the wounds. In No. 2, where the three circles were equidistant from the margin but of different diameters, the largest and smallest circles were still not completely covered over, while the one of intermediate size was entirely covered. In 2A all of the circles had regenerated coverings entirely over them. Nos. 3 and 3A showed all of the holes to be 5 mm. in diameter; thus they had become contracted to little more than half of their original size. Those on the sense-organ radii seem a little further covered than those on intermediate radii, though there is very little difference at all.

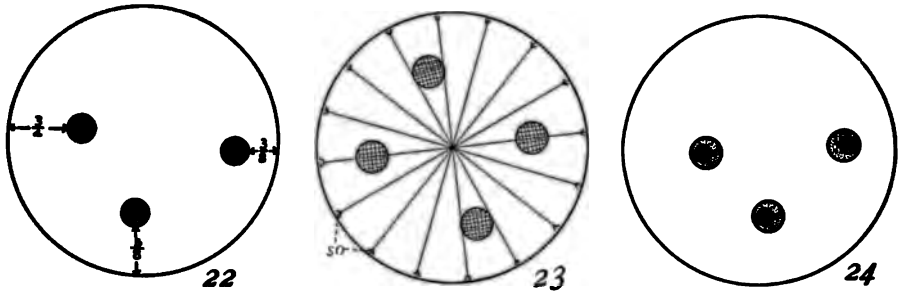


FIG. 22.—Medusa disk with 3 equal sized circular wounds at different distances from margin.
FIG. 23.—Disk with 2 circular wounds over radii leading to sense-organs, and 2 exactly similar wounds between sense-organ radii. *SO*, sense-organs.
FIG. 24.—Regeneration from 3 circular oral wounds.

With these circular cuts one eliminates the angular regeneration factor mentioned in the experiments above, and it was noted in all cases that the film was widest from that area of the circumference toward the disk center (fig. 24). This condition would be expected on the hypothesis of greater regenerative pressure near the disk center, though the deeper level of the cut at this part is a better explanation.

Three days after the operation all of the circles were entirely covered over. These experiments are also difficult to draw conclusions from, since the wounds have a tendency to contract while they are healing and regenerating new tissue. Those nearest the disk center contract most. Thus one might believe them to be more rapidly producing the new tissue.

THE RATE OF REGENERATION FROM DIFFERENT AREAS ON TAPERING PERIPHERAL STRIPS AND REMAINING PART OF DISK — CONTRASTING THE LEVEL OF THE CUT AND EXTENT OF INJURY.

The circular medusa disk offers exceptional material for certain operations that could not be carried out on animals having a differently shaped body. It has been found difficult to perform an experiment which would clearly contrast the rate of regeneration from certain levels with the rate from parts more or less injured. According to Zeleny the rate of regeneration will be faster the greater the injury up to a reasonable limit, and according to Morgan's pressure and growth idea the rate varies at different levels, being slower as the level is nearer the normal body limits. The conditions are usually open to either interpretation, since the least injured animals are the ones with less body tissue removed and necessarily nearer the normal body limits than those with more tissue removed.

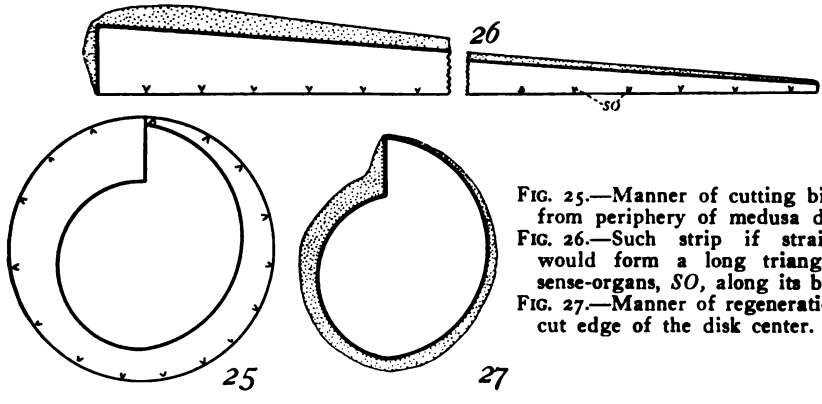


FIG. 25.—Manner of cutting bias strip from periphery of medusa disk.
FIG. 26.—Such strip if straightened would form a long triangle with sense-organs, *SO*, along its base.
FIG. 27.—Manner of regeneration from cut edge of the disk center.

If a medusa disk is so cut that a strip wide at one end and narrow at the other is removed from the entire periphery, then regeneration will take place from the entire cut surface of the strip and also from the cut margin of the remaining disk center (fig. 25). *The strip* is most injured, one may say, at its narrow end, as obviously here more of the disk has been removed from it, and it is least injured at its broad end, as here less tissue has been cut away. The wide end of the strip, however, has more raw tissue exposed by the cut, as the disk is thicker near the center and gradually thinner toward the periphery. One might claim that those portions with the most raw tissue exposed were the most injured; therefore the strip and disk center were equally injured along corresponding regions of the cut. It seems more logical, however, to consider the object most injured from which a greater amount of its original body tissue has been separated. The remaining *disk center* is most injured where it was deepest cut or on that part from which the wide end of the strip came, and it is least injured where the narrower part of the strip came from.

The rate of regeneration from the strip, which when straightened forms a long triangle, is fastest at the wide end and is gradually slower as the narrow end is reached (fig. 26). In other words, *it is fastest from the part of least injury*. The regeneration rate from the disk part is most rapid in the deep cut and slower as the cut approaches the margin (fig. 27). Here, then, it is *fastest at the place of greatest injury*. In both cases, however, regeneration is fastest at the deepest, or same, level, and slower as the level nears the margin. It is of interest to note that the *regeneration in both directions, toward the periphery and toward the center, proceeds at almost the same rate from the same level.*

It might be claimed that the narrow end of the strip did not have sufficient material for more rapid regeneration, but this is scarcely possible, since the entire strip is in a healthy, vigorous condition and the narrow end might easily draw on other portions for food material. The rate of regeneration at the narrow end is due to its level, and is usually the same as that from the corresponding place on the center disk, or even in some cases the rate of regeneration from the narrow end may exceed that from the same cut area of the disk.

After removal from the disk the strip continues to pulsate, thus having a twisting serpentine motion which often causes it to twist or become folded. Bends and folds form angular-like places along the cut surface and, as mentioned in previous sections of this paper, the shape of the cut exerts an influence on the rate of regeneration. This source of error has been kept in mind and the regenerating tissue from the strips carefully measured on all parts. It was evident that regeneration proceeded in exactly the manner cited above and was oftentimes twice as much from the wide as from the narrow end of the strip within 5 days after the operation.

This experiment seems to contrast in a way the influence due to the degree of injury and those exerted by the different levels of the animal's body upon the rate of regenerative growth. If this be true the level at which the cut is made is the more important factor of the two, and if the extent of injury exerts any influence upon the rate of regeneration it is a secondary influence and probably due only to the fact that the amount of injury and level are closely associated. The greater the injury to a medusa the closer the level is to the disk center.

That such an experiment on the medusa-disk is to be freely compared with experiments in which different numbers of appendages are removed will probably not be generally admitted. I should not like to be understood as claiming that the narrow end of the "strip" bears a similar relation to the wide end as that which the animal with many appendages removed does to the one with few.

This experiment serves further to indicate that activity and rest are negative factors in determining the rate of regeneration. The bias-cut strip is in periodic pulsation from the time it is removed from the central

portion of the disk, while the latter does not pulsate until a sufficient rim of new tissue has formed around its cut edge, usually requiring about two days after the operation. Yet the rate of regeneration is practically the same from corresponding parts of the two pieces. The physical condition of the strip and center piece must be closely similar, since they are parts of the same individual. It is important to remember here that the sense-organs and a part of the nerve-ring accompany the strip, while the central part has much less nervous tissue; yet this fact seems to cause no difference in the rate of regeneration of new tissue from the two pieces. The question of the influence of activity and rest will be attacked in a more conclusive manner in the next section.

REGENERATION DURING ACTIVITY AND REST—WITH AND WITHOUT RHYTHMICAL CONTRACTIONS.

Zeleny has suggested, with reservation, that when several appendages are removed, the effort to use the regenerating ones, or exercise, may cause the buds to grow faster. The general question of the influence of the nervous system on regeneration is an important one. Since *Cassiopea* is an animal with a rhythmically pulsating movement, it seemed likely that an experiment might be so arranged as to test the influences of activity and rest on the rate of regeneration. With such an idea in view a number of experiments were performed, the most satisfactory being recorded below.

A ring about 20 mm. in width was cut from the margin of the disk. The sense-organs were removed from half the periphery of this ring, while equal-sized pieces of tissue between the sense-organs were cut from the other half, the degree of injury thus being practically equal on the two halves. If, then, the epithelium was scraped across between the sense-organ half and the other without sense-organs, the first half continued to pulsate, while the latter comes to rest (see fig. 28, A). Such a ring will regenerate tissue toward the center until the circular space is covered over. Careful measurements were made on six preparations of this kind with two controls which had the entire ring in motion and two others with all the ring at rest. Comparing all measurements, it seems as though the tissue was regenerated at approximately equal rates from the two halves (fig. 28, B). From this experiment one is unable to find any reason to believe that activity or effort is capable of accelerating the regeneration rate. In this animal the rate of regeneration seems to be independent of the nervous impulse necessary for activity. The experiments given in the previous section, as well as those to be considered in connection with the influences of various salt solutions on the rate of regeneration, also furnish some evidence on the question of activity and rest as determining factors.

Child (1904) has, in a number of contributions upon the subject of Regulation, held that activity exerts a marked influence upon the manner of regeneration. He has also claimed that the nervous system exerts an in-

direct influence over the regeneration rate through its control of the animal's movements. The experiments recorded above, however, seem to contrast (in a manner only possible on some such unique form) the effects

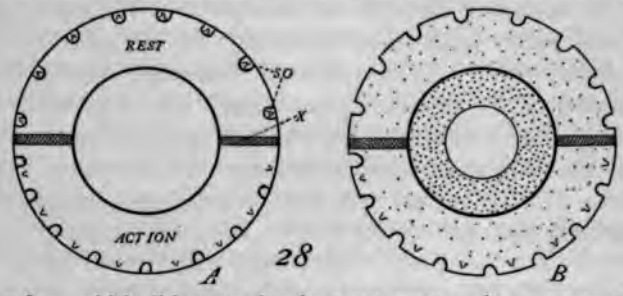


FIG. 28.—Ring from which disk center has been cut away. *A: so*, sense-organs cut away from upper half; from lower half equal-sized pieces have been removed. *X*, insulation between halves. *B:* Stippled area shows rate of regeneration to be equal from the two.

of activity and rest, and the results show in a decided way the negative influence of the two conditions. If such facts apply to the animal kingdom generally, then Child's idea that the regulation of growth is controlled by these factors is insufficient to account for the observed phenomena.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF REMOVED MOUTH-ARMS AND THEIR RATES OF REGENERATION.—DOES THE REGENERATION RATE OF AN APPENDAGE VARY DIRECTLY WITH THE EXTENT OF INJURY?

The conclusion that the animal with the greater number of removed parts regenerates each part more rapidly than does the one with the lesser number of removed parts was suggested by Zeleny (1903, 1905) and supported by his studies on several forms. He (1903) found in *Ophioglypha*, the brittle-star, that when three or four of the arms were removed from an individual each arm would regenerate faster than would the arms of an individual with a smaller number removed. The difference in rate was sufficient to be shown in his text-figures (1905, fig. 4). The arms of this star-fish are all similar in size and form, and thus the regenerating bud from the base of any one may be compared with that from the base of any other. Such an animal also regenerates the arm-buds by a process of continuous growth. No criticism that I know of can be cited against these observations on *Ophioglypha* nor against Zeleny's conclusion that in this species at least the rate of regeneration is fastest in the series which has undergone the greatest injury, except possibly the objection that the series consisted of too few individuals. It may be that while in one group of animals results similar to Zeleny's would obtain, in another different results might follow. This can only be ascertained by further observations.

It will be shown below, from a study of several series of *Cassiopea*,

in which all of the mouth-arms are, likewise, almost similar in size and form and regenerate by a process of continuous growth, that wide variations are presented in the rate of regeneration of the several arms. The series with a few removed arms may regenerate each arm as rapidly as do those with a greater number of removed arms. An individual with several arms cut away often shows as great variation in the regenerating rates of the different arms as is found on comparing the average rates of individuals with few and many arms removed. Here it may be emphasized that the variation in regeneration rates of the several arms of one and the same individual (a variation shown to exist only slightly in most of Zeleny's tables, but which is very striking in some of mine) is an index to the dangers which arise when one compares the average rates of regeneration found in several different individuals. Miss King (1898) also states in her study of regeneration in *Asterias* that "the rate of growth of the new arms is ordinarily unequal when a disk regenerates two or more at the same time."

Zeleny has studied three forms of decapod Crustacea—*Gelasimus, Alpheus,* and *Cambarus,* the crayfish. He realized that so few individuals of *Gelasimus* and *Alpheus* were available for final comparison that it was unsafe to draw general conclusions. In these two forms the chelæ are of unequal size and in *Alpheus* they undergo a reversal upon removal of the larger one. (See Prizibram, 1901, and Wilson, 1903.) Zeleny cites such facts as introducing complications in this study. The crayfish, *Cambarus,* has the two chelæ of equal size and for other reasons also is better suited to regeneration experiments. After a careful study of 77 individuals, 61 of which were available for the final comparison, Zeleny concludes:

> That in the series with the greater degree of injury each chela regenerates more rapidly than the single removed chela of the series with the lesser degree of injury. Likewise [and this is the point that I shall attempt to show the importance of in interpreting Zeleny's experiments] the members of the series with the greater injury molt more rapidly than those of the series with the lesser injury.

This work on the Crustacea seems to me to be open to criticism. Such animals must molt before the regenerating bud is observed. The time elapsing between the operation and the first molt varied from 27 to 181 days, and according to Zeleny, "the amount of regeneration of the right chela at the end of the first molt is the same, no matter what the degree of injury may be." Further, "The specific amount of regeneration at the end of the first molt after the operation is a constant which is not affected by the time of the molt, the size of the animal, or the degree of other injuries to the individual." It seems almost inconceivable that one animal should thus require nearly seven times as long to regenerate a bud of a given length as was necessary for another to grow a similar bud.

Zeleny now takes this "constant" (specific amount of regeneration at the end of the first molt) and divides it by the number of days between

the time of operation and the first molt and considers the quotient as the "specific rate of regeneration per unit of thoracic length per day." As quoted above, "the members of the series with the greater injury molt more rapidly than those of the series with the lesser injury." Thus it clearly follows that any "constant" divided by fewer days (a smaller number) will give a greater quotient (specific rate of regeneration per day) than the same "constant" divided by a greater number of days. The calculations included in Zeleny's tables 6 and 7 (1905) then, to my mind, fail to show that the greater degree of injury causes a faster regeneration, but merely that those most injured molt sooner after the operation; and since all regenerate the same specific amount at the end of the first molt regardless of the time, of course the ones molting soonest will appear to grow that specific amount quickest.

A more plausible line of reasoning would seem to be the following: Since all have the same specific amount of regeneration after the first molt, whether it takes 27 or 181 days for the molt to occur, this specific amount probably begins to be formed soon after the operation and continues until it is prevented by the chitinous covering of the crayfish, just as the animal's increase in body-size is always checked by the amount of expansion possible within its inflexible case. When the growth is so checked it must stop and remain quiescent until the molt occurs. The full amount of growth may be attained in 10, 20, or 30 days—no one can say—but after it is once attained all succeeding days until the molt occurs are not days of growth at all, but merely a quiescent period. That some such process as this is followed is strongly suggested by the fact that the specific amount of regeneration is a "constant" for all at the time of the first molt.

It is not at all certain, then, that the regeneration is continuous throughout the period elapsing between molts; therefore, one is in error to divide the specific amount of regeneration, a "constant," by the number of days between molts and to consider the quotient obtained as the specific rate of regeneration per day. The columns of specific rates in Zeleny's tables 6 and 7 mean nothing, unless it can be proven that the regeneration is continuous during all of the 27 or 181 days, and since the columns of specific amounts show this element to be practically constant it seems likely that all of the individuals regenerate as much as possible soon after the operation and then the process stops until the molt occurs.

To further illustrate the insufficiency of such a method of calculation we may consider the line of averages at the foot of Zeleny's table 6. The specific amount of regeneration for series A averages 0.444 and for series B (the ones with greater injury) 0.435 (practically equal), while the average specific rate of regeneration for A is 0.0049, and for B almost twice as much, 0.008. The columns including the number of days before the molts are not averaged, but if one will make the calculation for the 14

cases in series A, he will find the average period before molting to be 97.43 days, while for the 13 individuals of series B it is only 60.77 days. If now the average molting period of series A be multiplied by its specific rate of regeneration, we have $97.43 \times 0.0049 = 0.4774$, and a similar calculation for series B gives $60.77 \times 0.008 = 0.4861$. The two products differ but slightly. Thus the average specific rates of regeneration for the two series are to one another as the average times between the operation and the first molts. The average line of Zeleny's table 7 gives a similar result ($0.42 = 0.633$), but not so close as the above, where the two series have almost the same number of individuals, 13 and 14; in Zeleny's table 7 series A contains 14 and B 20 individuals. The only legitimate conclusion to be drawn from such figures seems to be that *Cambarus* regenerates a given amount (the specific amount of regeneration) and stops until a molt occurs; if the molt comes early, then the animal has an opportunity to continue its regeneration; and so it may be said that a crayfish which molts oftener will regenerate a limb sooner than one molting less often. Thus if greater injury causes the crayfish to molt more promptly, they grow a limb sooner merely on account of having more opportunity to grow, as the result of frequent molts, but whether the specific rate of regeneration is more in those with the greater degree of injury is not definitely shown.

Zeleny states: "The more rapid regeneration of the limbs may be the cause of the acceleration of the molting, or the opposite may be the case, or finally the two phenomena may be coördinate and only indirectly related." In the crayfish it seems that the greater injury is accompanied by more rapid molts, but I see no proof that the latter response results from a more rapid regeneration. It may be due to the regeneration taking place from a greater area.[1]

Of special interest in this connection are the results of Emmel (1907) on the lobster. Only an abstract of Dr. Emmel's paper has yet been published. He has written me, however, that the specific amount of regeneration at the time of the first molt was fairly constant, and this is the important point for comparison with Zeleny's results. Emmel found that those individuals with the greater degree of injury molted slower, while those less injured molted faster. The response is opposite to that of the crayfish. The significant point is his conclusion that the rate of regeneration was slower in the more injured series and faster in those less injured—again an opposite conclusion from that of Zeleny.

If Emmel's observations that the lobsters most injured molt slower than those less injured is correct, then his second conclusion of slower regeneration from those most injured is clear. In the lobster, as in the crayfish, the regenerating bud grows as long as possible and then is pre-

[1] Emmel (1906) has shown that it is the process of regeneration itself which affects the rate of molting in the lobster.

vented from going further by the hard chitinous shell; this amount of growth (specific amount of regeneration) may very probably be attained some time before the ecdysis. Now, if we follow Zeleny's method of first calculating the specific amount of regeneration and then dividing this by the number of days elapsing between the operation and the molt, we get a slow rate of regeneration for those most injured, since they molt slower and give a larger number of days as a divisor with the specific amount of regeneration as a constant dividend. With such a method of calculation it is not a question of regeneration rate at all, but merely a consideration of the molting period. Emmel states that the later the mutilation is made in the molting cycle the more rapid is the rate of ensuing regeneration. This suggests that the regenerating bud may grow to its limit within the encasing wall in a very short time, and when the molt is long postponed it must remain quiescent for a long period.

I have entered into this somewhat detailed criticism of the work on crustacea, since it seems to me that in considering the rate of regeneration one finds himself on rather uncertain grounds when using an animal on which the continuous growth of the regenerating part can not be observed. On the other hand, *Cassiopea* is well suited to such study, since all of its eight mouth-arms are similar and the regenerating buds from the stumps of the arms grow continuously and may be constantly observed and measured.

Sixteen healthy individuals were selected and their disks carefully measured. They were arranged in eight series of two individuals each, having one mouth-arm removed from each of the first pair, two arms from the second, and so on to the seventh pair, where seven mouth-arms were removed from each. The eighth pair had four alternate arms removed. After 4 days none showed any marked indications of regenerating buds. Two weeks after the operation distinct buds were regenerating from the cut arm-stumps, though at this time it was almost impossible to determine whether there was any difference in rate. Later, however, differences in rate became evident.

By referring to table 2 comparisons may be readily made between the average specific amounts of regeneration from those medusæ with a few mouth-arms removed and those with many. The first column indicates the number of arms removed from the individual; the next column gives the diameter of each disk at the time of the operation; the third column gives the specific amounts of regeneration for the medusæ 20 days after the operation. This specific amount of regeneration is the quotient obtained when the average length of the regenerating buds from the stumps of the several arms is divided by the aboral diameter of the medusa disk. The fourth, sixth, and eighth columns show the diameters of the medusæ at intervals during the experiment. It will be noted that the animals were

gradually decreasing in size, probably due to an insufficient food supply. It should be recalled, however, that Morgan has shown for a number of forms that starvation or lack of food does not affect the rate of differentiation in the regenerating processes. Further, all animals in my experiments were under identical conditions, so that they are to be compared without regard to food supply. The fifth, seventh, and ninth columns give the specific amounts of regeneration at the times indicated. In these tables it is unnecessary to calculate a specific rate of regeneration per day, since the growth was continuous and each column of specific amounts is given for a certain number of days; obviously the specific amounts divided by the same number of days are to one another as their quotients would be. Thus the first column of specific amounts not only indicates the specific amounts of regeneration for each individual up to that time, but also the relative rates of growth during the 20 days.

At 20 days after the operation one individual with only one mouth-arm removed and both medusæ with two arms removed have regenerated faster than any of those with four or five removed arms. The ones having lost six and seven arms show faster regeneration than any others of the series. These four medusæ are, however, the smallest individuals, and young small medusæ usually regenerate faster than larger ones, even under the same conditions. The medusæ with four alternate arms removed are going at about the same rate as the two above with four adjacently cut arms. All medusæ in the table, with the exception of the last two, had consecutive or adjacent arms removed.

After 23 days the medusæ have decreased somewhat in size, as is shown by comparing the second and fourth columns. At this time, July 6, the fifth column, specific amount, shows a sudden jump when compared with the third column. This is not an actual jump occurring within the three days' time between the calculations, but is only apparent, since the specific amounts after 20 days were calculated on the basis of the original diameters of the medusæ and the calculations at 23 days are made on the diameters at this time.[1] The two columns are not to be compared. The other columns to the right are open to comparison, since the diameters were remeasured each time. The specific rates of regeneration for the individuals with one, two, and three arms removed are about the same. Those with four removed arms have a slight advantage over those having lost five arms; it must be mentioned, however, that one individual with five arms removed has failed to produce a bud from one stump and consequently its average regeneration is abnormally low. Again the ones with seven cut arms are regenerating fastest of all, and those that lost six follow next.

On the 18th of July, 35 days after the operation, the regenerating buds

[1] Recent studies show that only the original diameters are to be used in such calculations, as final diameters vary with different extents of injury.

were all growing at a healthy rate, as is readily seen by comparing the specific amounts of regeneration with those of July 6. Individuals with two, three, four, and five arms cut away are going at similar rates, although showing irregular fluctuations. A point of some importance is that there is a greater difference in regeneration rates between the two individuals with three arms cut away than between any others of the series having lost from two to five mouth-arms. Those with six and seven removed arms still lead in the rate of regeneration. The two with four alternate arms cut away are going at about the same rate as the two with four consecutive mouth-arms removed.

The experiment was closed after 38 days, at which time the longest buds were slightly less than 9 mm. in length. These were produced by the medusæ in which four and five arms had been removed, which were among the largest individuals of the series. Those with one and two cut arms were regenerating at about equal rates. The two individuals with three removed arms showed a great difference between their average regeneration rates. Those with four arms removed were regenerating faster than those that had five arms cut away. Those with six and seven cut arms led the series, but, as mentioned above, these were the smallest individuals. The two with four alternate arms removed were perceptibly behind those with the four adjacent ones cut away.

TABLE 2.—*Average specific amounts of regeneration from medusæ with their mouth-arms removed.*

June 13.		July 3.	July 6.		July 18.		July 21.	
No. of arms removed.	Diameter.	Specific amt. of regeneration.	Diameter.	Specific amt. of regeneration.	Diameter.	Specific amt. of regeneration.	Diameter.	Specific amt. of regeneration.
1	3.5	0.0289	3.37	0.0492	2.87	0.0869	2.75	0.0909
1	3.5	.0357	2.75	.0454	2.37	.0526	2.25	.06
2	3.25	.0387	2.75	.0567	2.25	.0833	2.19	.0857
2	3.25	.0387	2.75	.0426	2.25	.0694	2.19	.0714
3	3.37	.037	2.56	.0469	2.25	.1111	2.06	.126
3	3.37	.037	2.75	.0418	2.5	.05	2.37	.0526
4	3.62	.0344	3.12	.0685	2.5	.079	2.62	.1025
4	3.62	.0344	2.75	.056	2.37	.1084	2.37	.132
5	4.12	.029	3.5	.0608	2.87	.0956	3	.1
5	4.12	.029	3.5	†.0351	2.69	†.0604	2.87	†.0652
6	2.5	.052	2.19	.0765	1.75	.0997	1.87	.1116
6	2.5	.05	1.93	.0893	1.62	.1346	1.69	.1659
7	2.25	.0833	1.43	.1304	1.16	.1643	1.19	.1583
7	2	.0937	1.69	.0953	1.25	.1500	1.31	.1664
*4	3.5	.0328	3.5	†.0357	3	†.0416	2.93	†.0372
*4	3.5	.0388	3.5	.0625	3	.0833	3	.0885

* Four alternate mouth-arms were removed, in all others adjacent arms were cut away.
† No regeneration at all from one arm-stump.

Table 2, as a whole, indicates a condition of individual variation and fluctuation in the regeneration rates rather than anything else. It should

be mentioned that these calculations have been made, according to the usual custom, from linear measurements only, but it must be borne in mind that the actual volume of new tissue might oftentimes be more in a short stocky bud than in a longer slender one. Some of the regenerating arm-buds are short and branching, while others are long and simple in structure.

There is no doubt that the individuals with six and seven removed arms, those of the greatest degree of injury, regenerated at a faster average rate than the other medusæ of the series. It should be remembered that these were the smallest, and, as a matter of fact, in all of the experiments the small young medusæ showed more ability to regenerate rapidly than did larger old ones. Unfortunately this point was not controlled, although indirectly it is checked by a comparison with the other members of the series which are practically of a common size. In the last column, for instance, those medusæ with three and four removed arms are regenerating at a better rate than those having lost five arms, and they are also slightly smaller than the latter, although they were all of practically the same size.

The objection to this experiment, which has probably suggested itself before this time, is that too few individuals were employed. This objection is not as serious as it may seem at first sight. If among animals any such general law of regeneration exists as that the greater the degree of injury the faster the rate of regeneration, it should at least manifest itself to an evident degree. It is not necessary to use more than half as many medusæ to satisfy one's self that the rate of degeneration is fastest from the middle of a straight-cut surface and slowest from its outer corners; that regeneration is faster from a level 20 mm. from the disk margin than from any level less than that distance from the margin; that regeneration takes place fastest from the widest end of a peripheral bias-cut strip of the medusa disk and slowest from the narrow end of the strip; or, that a number of other conditions will follow, depending upon the manner in which the disk is cut. These are all facts in regeneration, and a number of them are shown by distantly related animals; and, if the degree of injury determines the rate of regeneration to any significant extent, it seems to the writer that it should manifest this determination in a more evident manner.

A serious objection to the view of a connection between the degree of injury and the rate of regeneration is the fact that from a single medusa the several arm-buds grow out at rates differing as widely as the average rates of individuals with different degrees of injury. It is difficult to understand how such a fact can be reconciled to the degree of injury idea. When one individual has six arms cut away, each at the same distance from its base, then it would be expected that all of the arms should regenerate at almost the same rate, for there is little doubt that the degree of injury is the same in each case and the surrounding conditions are as near as possible identical, being similar places on the body of one individual.

TABLE 3.—*Specific rates of regeneration from each stump of two removed arms on the same individual.*

Individual.	July 6, 23 days.			July 18.			July 21, 38 days.		
	Diameter.	Length of arm-buds.	Specific amt. of regeneration.	Diameter.	Length of arm-buds.	Specific amt. of regeneration.	Diameter.	Length of arm-buds.	Specific amt. of regeneration.
A.....	2.75	0.125	0.0454	2.25	0.125	0.0555	2.187	0.125	0.0571
	2.75	.187	.0681	2.25	.25	.1109	2.187	.25	.1142
B.....	2.75	.115	.0418	2.25	.125	.0555	2.187	.125	.0571
	2.75	.12	.0436	2.25	.187	.0833	2.187	.187	.0857

Table 3 gives the histories of each arm in two individuals which had had two of their mouth-arms cut away. The individual A shows after 23 days a greater variation between the rates of regeneration from its two arm-stumps than is shown in table 2 between the average rates of all the medusæ with one, two, three, five, and four (alternate) arms removed. At the thirty-fifth and thirty-eighth days one of the arms has grown twice as fast as the other. The B individual of table 3 also shows a distinct difference in regeneration rates between the two arms.

TABLE 4.—*Specific rate of regeneration from each stump of four removed arms on the same individual.*

Individual.	July 6, 23 days.			July 18.			July 21, 38 days.		
	Diameter	Length of arm-buds.	Specific amt. of regeneration.	Diameter.	Length of arm-buds.	Specific amt. of regeneration.	Diameter.	Length of arm-buds.	Specific amt. of regeneration.
A.....	3.125	0.187	0.06	2.5	0.156	0.0625	2.62	0.187	0.0714
	3.125	.188	.0603	2.5	.187	.075	2.62	.264	.1006
	3.125	.23	.0736	2.5	.196	.0785	2.62	.312	.119
	3.125	.25	.08	2.5	.25	.1	2.62	.312	.119
B.....	2.75	.126	.0458	2.37	.224	.0945	2.37	.305	.1284
	2.75	.136	.0496	2.37	.241	.1013	2.37	.308	.1297
	2.75	.166	.0604	2.37	.252	.1062	2.37	.311	.1311
	2.75	.187	.0681	2.37	.312	.1315	2.37	.33	.1389

Table 4 gives the histories of each of four arms in two individuals, A and B. Here again one finds as much variation in the regeneration rates as is shown between the average rates for individuals with different degrees of injury in table 2.

Table 5 records the rates for each of the six regenerating arms in two individuals, A and B. The individual A shows a variation in rate of regeneration between the first two arms in the table and the last one which is greater than the difference in average rates of regeneration between almost any of those variously injured medusæ given in table 2. The individual B of table 5 also shows a variation in the rates of regeneration from its several arm-stumps.

TABLE 5.—*Specific rate of regeneration from each stump of six removed arms on the same individual.*

Individual.	July 6, 23 days.			July 18.			July 21, 38 days.		
	Diameter.	Length of arm-buds.	Specific amt. of regeneration.	Diameter.	Length of arm-buds.	Specific amt. of regeneration.	Diameter.	Length of arm-buds.	Specific amt. of regeneration.
A.....	2.187	0.1249	0.0571	1.75	0.125	0.0714	1.87	0.125	0.0666
	2.187	.1297	.0593	1.75	.139	.0792	1.87	.135	.0718
	2.187	.1875	.0857	1.75	.153	.0873	1.87	.187	.1
	2.187	.1875	.0857	1.75	.187	.1071	1.87	.253	.1343
	2.187	.1875	.0857	1.75	.193	.1103	1.87	.262	.1397
	2.187	.1875	.0857	1.75	.25	.1428	1.87	.313	.1671
B.....	1.94	.122	.0627	1.63	.125	.0769	1.69	.189	.1121
	1.94	.167	.0862	1.63	.187	.1153	1.69	.25	.1481
	1.94	.187	.0967	1.63	.25	.1537	1.69	.303	.1794
	1.94	.187	.0967	1.63	.25	.1537	1.69	.31	.1836
	1.94	.187	.0967	1.63	.25	.1537	1.69	.312	.1851
	1.94	.187	.0967	1.63	.25	.1537	1.69	.315	.1869

With such remarkable variations existing within the same individual in the regeneration rates of its arms, it is dangerous to draw conclusions from the differences shown in rate of regeneration among the individuals of a small series. As pointed out above, the variations in rate between pairs of similarly injured individuals in table 2 are as great as the differences in rate between two individuals which have suffered different degrees of injury. It must be recognized, finally, that in these medusæ the individual variation in regeneration rates is sufficient to conceal a minor variation which might be due to the degree of injury, did such exist.

These tables giving the specific amount of regeneration from the arm-bases of the same individual serve, at least, to indicate that no deductions can be made from table 2 regarding the specific amounts of regeneration from medusæ injured to greater or less degrees. Tables 3, 4, and 5 indicate still further that unless the differences in regeneration rates among animals injured to greater and less degrees are constant and marked they may very likely be accidental, or else due to the peculiar responses of that given form upon which the experiment was conducted. It is of interest to note that Scott's (1907) study of regeneration in the fish's fin and the present data from the medusæ both indicate that the extent of injury is negative in its influence on the rate of regeneration. Zeleny and Emmel's results on animals that must molt in order that the regenerating bud may continue to grow are due, I believe, to the influence of the regenerating tissue on the molting cycle.

THE INFLUENCES OF CHANGED CHEMICAL CONDITIONS ON THE RATE OF REGENERATION.

At present scarcely anything has been ascertained as to the effects produced upon regenerating tissues by changes in their chemical environments. Loeb (1904) found that *Tubularia* in a solution slightly below the concentration of sea-water would regenerate more rapidly than in normal sea-water. It was also necessary to have the solution slightly alkaline, in order to obtain a maximum growth. Loeb also made some observations on the influence of the oxygen supply and found, as in the case of embryonic growth, that an insufficient amount of oxygen retarded the rate of regeneration. A series of experiments that I (1906, 1907*a*, 1907*b*) have conducted on the developing fish egg has shown that although in a new medium the embryo may often develop to all appearances in a normal manner, yet its rate of growth is usually affected.

In the following experiments the four elements Na, K, Ca, and Mg were employed, as they seem so essential to marine life, and also form a group, as it were, the members of which act against one another or fit together in ways so as to produce a favorable balance for the maintenance of life-processes.

Mayer has performed a number of most instructive experiments illustrating the influences of these elements upon the rhythmical pulsations of *Cassiopea*. He found that sodium stimulates slightly the muscular activity and that it is "the chief stimulant of sea-water." A combination of Na, K, and Ca is, however, a greater stimulant. Magnesium must be present in order to hold such a combination in check and thus sustain a rhythmical action. Normal medusæ are but little affected by an excess of NaCl in sea-water and will pulsate for more than 18 hours in sea-water plus 1 per cent excess NaCl. A 1.55 per cent excess of NaCl was found to give rapid pulsations and to shrivel the medusa disk. A relative excess of K and Ca retards pulsation, even though the actual amount of K and Ca is that contained in sea-water.[1]

Potassium temporarily stimulates and then retards pulsation; in excess it is quite poisonous. The disk comes to rest expanded, with the mouth-arms contracted. In a 0.125 per cent excess of K_2SO_4 the rate of pulsation is reduced to half the normal after 13 hours, while 1.55 per cent excess will stop the pulsations within 4 minutes.

Calcium itself is not necessary for pulsation, although by its presence the inhibiting effect of Mg is counteracted. After one has inhibited pulsation in a given manner it may be restored in solutions lacking Ca, showing that this element is unessential for rhythmical contraction. A 1 per cent sea-water solution of $CaCl_2$ reduces the rate of pulsation; recovery is immediate in sea-water.

[1] By sea-water Mayer means Van't Hoff's artificial sea-water and the retardation which he attributes to Ca and K in this sentence may in reality be due to the smaller relative amount of Na present in the solution.

Magnesium salts in sea-water retard pulsation and reduce its rate, amplitude, and energy. The disk will pulsate at twice its normal rate in sea-water minus magnesium. In a 1.6 per cent sea-water solution of $MgCl_2$ the disk pulsates slowly for half an hour and then stops.

The medusæ in the following regeneration experiments were subjected to the influences of sea-water concentrated to two-thirds and three-fourths of its original volume; or to sea-water diluted with distilled water, two parts of sea-water to one of distilled and one of sea-water to one of distilled; or to sea-water solutions of $NaCl\ \frac{M}{12}, \frac{M}{15}, \frac{M}{30}$, and $\frac{M}{50}$; $KCl\ \frac{M}{40}, \frac{M}{50}, \frac{M}{75}$ and $\frac{M}{100}$; $CaCl_2\ \frac{M}{20}, \frac{M}{50}$, and $\frac{M}{100}$ and $MgCl_2\ \frac{M}{20}, \frac{M}{40}$, and $\frac{M}{80}$. The medusæ were all cut as shown in fig. 29. The margin of the removed piece included four of the peripheral sense-organs and was made as near as possible of the same proportional size in the several medusæ.[1]

The regeneration of these medusæ is shown in tables 6 and 7, which have been arranged from two experiments run at different times. In the first column of these tables the solutions employed are listed; the second and fifth columns contain the diameters of the individuals at the times indicated, the third and sixth columns give the exact amounts of regeneration that have taken place in a radial direction from the middle of the cut surfaces; the fourth and seventh columns show the specific amounts of regeneration from the different individuals. These last amounts may be compared also as specific rates of regeneration per day, since all have consumed like periods of time in the regeneration process.

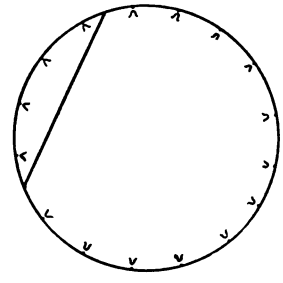


FIG. 29.—Diagram of disk with straight cut removing four of its marginal sense-organs.

The rates of pulsation of the medusæ disks were retarded in all of the solutions after the first several hours, the retardation being more marked in some cases than in others. The pulsations were always, however, slower than the controls.

The animals in the sea-water concentrated to two-thirds its original volume died within two days. Those in the three-fourths concentrated sea-water were so weakened that they showed no beginning of regeneration and were placed in normal sea-water after the third day. The diluted sea-water solutions also had a decidedly depressing effect. All medusæ in such

[1] Those in table 6 treated with $KCl\ \frac{M}{50}$ and $MgCl_2\ \frac{M}{40}$ were small individuals, as indicated, and were cut in the dovetailed way shown in figure 10. This no doubt accounts in part for their apparently rapid regeneration, for it will be recalled that the deeper portion of a cut of this shape regenerates at a faster rate than a straight cut, such as that in figure 29.

media regenerated at a slow rate and threw out masses of slimy material, a reaction commonly shown when this animal is placed in disagreeable surroundings. It is recognized that the concentration and dilution of these sea-water preparations are very great and with slight concentration or dilution such injurious effects might by no means follow. The one object of the powerful solutions was to ascertain whether this animal was very resistant to changes in the osmotic pressure conditions, and the fact that they existed in these solutions for such long periods of time indicates that they are not particularly sensitive to osmotic changes.

TABLE 6.—*Rates of regeneration in strange chemical environments.*

Solutions.	July 4. Experiment 6 days old.			July 6.		
	Diameter.	Length of new tissue.	Specific amt. of regeneration.	Diameter.	Length of new tissue.	Specific amt. of regeneration.
Control.....	2.75	0.155	0.0568	2.56	0.25	0.0975
NaCl $\frac{m}{12}$.....	2.25	.093	*.0416	----	-----	(†)
KCl $\frac{m}{40}$.....	1.87	.048	.0249	1.75	.063	.0357
KCl $\frac{m}{50}$.....	0.81	.093	‡.1153	0.75	.063	‡.0833
KCl $\frac{m}{100}$.....	2.37	.125	.0526	1.31	.129	.099
$CaCl_2$ $\frac{m}{20}$§..... ..	1.62	‖ None	------	1.5	.031	**.0208
$CaCl_2$ $\frac{m}{50}$.....	1.13	None	------	1.06	.063	††.0588
$CaCl_2$ $\frac{m}{100}$.....	2.62	0.146	0.0595	2.25	.187	.0833
$MgCl_2$ $\frac{m}{20}$.....	2	.071	.0469	1.87	.125	.0666
$MgCl_2$ $\frac{m}{40}$.....	1.25	.093	‡.075	1.19	.125	‡.1052
$MgCl_2$ $\frac{m}{80}$.....	2.75	.093	.034	2.75	.16	.0568

* Back to sea-water.
† Dead.
‡ The cut on this individual is differently shaped, see the text.
§ The $CaCl_2$ caused a slight precipitate to form in the sea-water solutions.
‖ Tetanus, put into sea-water.
** In sea-water.
†† Put into sea-water.

A close study of the tables indicates that NaCl slightly retards the regeneration rate, but the weakened appearance of the disk in the strengths of this medium used suggests that the retardation is not a direct effect of the Na, but more probably due to the animal's loss of tone.

The stronger solutions of KCl also retard regeneration. The weaker solutions, on the other hand, seem to accelerate the process so that the specific amount of regeneration from individuals subjected to their action is slightly greater than that of the control medusæ.

The medusæ in the KCl solutions have their disks fully expanded, but their mouth-arms are contracted and balled up in the center.

The $CaCl_2$ solutions produce a tendency toward tetanic contractions and in the stronger solutions the oral surface of the disk is often torn by this violently contracted condition. Mayer (1906) has called attention to this effect of $CaCl_2$ on *Cassiopea*. The rate of regeneration in all of the $CaCl_2$ solutions was slower than normal.

In table 7 the weaker $MgCl_2$ solutions seem to have caused the regeneration processes to proceed at a rate well ahead of the control. In table 6, however, the indicated effect is not so favorable.

TABLE 7.—*Rates of regeneration in strange chemical environments.*

Solutions.	July 19. Experiment 9 days old.			July 21, 11 days old.		
	Diameter.	Length of new tissue.	Specific amt. of regeneration.	Diameter.	Length of new tissue.	Specific amt. of regeneration.
Control	2.5	0.187	0.075	2.5	0.188	0.075
Sea-water concen. $\frac{3}{4}$	2.25	.125	*.0555	2.28	.187	†.0821
Sea-water diluted $\frac{1}{3}$	2.44	.093	.0384	2.44	.093	.0384
Sea-water diluted $\frac{1}{2}$	3	.031	‡.0104	3	.062	§.0208
NaCl $\frac{m}{10}$	2.31	.095	.0405	2.44	.125	.0512
NaCl $\frac{m}{80}$	2.13	.125	.0583	2.13	.13	.0583
NaCl $\frac{m}{50}$	2.31	.125	.054	2.25	.16	.0694
KCl $\frac{m}{50}$	2.06	.031	.0151	2	.063	.0312
KCl $\frac{m}{75}$	2.12	.142	.0661	2.25	.16	.0694
KCl $\frac{m}{100}$	1.94	.125	.0645	1.87	.187	.1
$MgCl_2$ $\frac{m}{250}$	1.87	.031	.0166	1.75	---	(**)
$MgCl_2$ $\frac{m}{40}$	1.69	.125	.074	1.69	.187	.111
$MgCl_2$ $\frac{m}{80}$	2.37	.187	.0789	2.31	.25	.1085

* In normal sea-water third day.
† In sea-water and regenerating very rapidly.
‡ Medusa throws out slime.
§ Ceased to secrete the slime.
** Disk inverted and new tissue torn away.

These experiments show, on the whole, no marked indication of differences in the specific actions of the several ions upon the rates of regeneration. The experiments are few, but even so they indicate the very complex nature of growth and regeneration processes which are dependent upon so many secondary influences and interactions that it will be found difficult to determine when an element is producing a direct effect upon the regeneration rate or whether the effect is due in some indirect way to other conditions incited by the actions of the chemical used. At any rate, there is evident need for an extensive and careful study along these lines with the view of analyzing, as far as possible, the relationships between regeneration rate and definite osmotic and chemical changes.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.

I. When a peripheral ring of tissue is removed from the disk of *Cassiopea* the cut margin of the disk promptly begins to regenerate a new rim. The rate at which the new tissue is formed depends upon the width of the removed ring. The wider the ring is radially, or, in other words, the nearer the cut is made to the disk center, the faster will the resulting regeneration take place. Cuts made deep into the body of the disk regenerate tissue which increases rapidly in radial width for about ten or twelve days and then almost ceases to grow in width and begins to thicken until the new tissue is as thick as the medusa disk at the given level. The cut periphery from which only a narrow ring of tissue has been removed regenerates slowly, but almost continuously, as this portion of the disk is thin and only a slight subsequent thickening is necessary.

A small medusa regenerates proportionately faster than a larger one.

These facts are closely similar to those observed by Morgan on the earthworm, fish, and salamander. The result is interesting in that it shows that animals so distinctly different as a medusa and a vertebrate regenerate new tissues at rates which differ with different levels of the body, and that as in the process of embryonic growth the nearer the normal body size and form is approached the slower will be the rate of regeneration.

The disks cut nearest the center are injured to the greatest degree, and they might be expected to regenerate new tissue at a faster rate than those cut further from the center or less injured, if the condition is parallel to the removal of more parts. It so happens, however, that the difference in level and the degree of injury often coincide. These two factors were contrasted in other experiments, which seemed to indicate that the level of the cut was the more important in regulating the regeneration rate of the new tissue.

II. *Cassiopea* regenerates new tissue from the wounded edges of straight cuts, and "partial cut surfaces" in exactly the same manner as Morgan found regeneration to take place from similar cuts made on the fins of fishes. Such a fact is of importance; first, since it shows the same principles in regeneration to apply to the proliferation of new tissue from the appendages and the true body-surface of animals. Second, it indicates that a common principle or law regulating the rates of regeneration from different parts of variously shaped cut surfaces runs through the animal kingdom, since forms at almost opposite ends of the series, the fish and the medusa, regenerate in the same manner.

The outer corners of cut surfaces seem to exert retarding influences upon the rate of regeneration at all levels. At the inner corners of "partial cut surfaces" regeneration proceeds at a faster rate than on the straight surface. This fact is probably due to a summation of regeneration which takes place from the two sides forming the angle of the inner corner. (See figs. 13, 15, and 17.)

III. Experiments were performed to test the rate of regeneration after removal of different-sized pieces of oral epithelium at the same distance from the center and pieces of the same size at different distances from the disk center. My interpretation of Morgan's idea of "pressure" in regeneration would lead one to expect greater pressure near the center and, therefore, new epithelium should cover the more central wounds of equal size sooner than it does those more peripherally located. The experiments were not entirely satisfactory on account of a tendency of the wounds to contract while healing or regenerating new tissue. Those nearest the disk center seem to contract most, so that the result is difficult to interpret. It was noted, however, that in the circular wounds the regenerating film was widest toward the disk center, as if tissue was being proliferated out from that direction at a faster rate than from any other. (See fig. 24.)

IV. When a medusa disk is cut so that a strip wide at one end and narrow at the other is removed from the entire periphery (fig. 25) regeneration will occur along the cut edge of the strip and also from the cut margin of the remaining disk center (figs. 25, 26, and 27). In such a preparation the strip has had most body-tissue removed from its narrow end; also it is least injured at the broad end, where least tissue has been removed. The disk center is most injured where it was deepest cut or at that place from which the wide end of the strip came and least injured on that portion from which the narrow end was cut.

The rate of generation from the strip, which when straightened would form a long triangular body, is fastest at the wide end and is gradually slower as the narrow end is reached. *It is, therefore, fastest from the part from which the least tissue has been removed.* The rate of regeneration from the disk portion is more rapid from the deep-cut part and becomes slower as the cut approaches the region of the former margin; therefore, *the regeneration rate here is fastest from the portion from which most tissue has been removed.* In both cases it will be observed that it is fastest at the deepest or same level, and slower as the level nears the margin. It is important to note that regeneration in both directions—toward the periphery and toward the disk center—proceeds at almost the same rate from the same level.

This experiment may be interpreted as contrasting the influences due to the degree of injury and those exerted at different levels of the animal's disk-shaped body. The level at which the cut is made is shown to be the more important factor of the two, and if the amount of injury exerts any influence on the rate of regeneration it is probably of secondary importance. One could scarcely claim that the narrow and wide ends of the strip were to be compared with two animals from which many and few appendages had been removed.

V. A ring 18 or 20 mm. in width or wider may be cut from the peri-

phery of a medusa disk and will regenerate from its cut edge until the central space is grown over with new tissue. Such a ring freshly cut had the sense-organs removed from half of its periphery, while equal-sized pieces of tissue between the sense-organs were removed from the other half, thus making the degree of injury equal on the two halves. The oral epithelium was then lightly scraped across between the sense-organ half and the other without sense-organs. After the last operation the first half continued to pulsate, while the latter came to rest, since the stimulus for pulsation seems to be derived from the sense-organs and can not be transmitted across the scraped epithelium (see fig. 28). This ring regenerates tissue toward the center until the space is covered over. The rate of regeneration from the half at rest and the half in motion is on comparisons with the controls found to be the same. The results with this medusa show that activity or effort is not capable of accelerating the regeneration rate, as authors have held to be the case in other animals. This is the most decisive experiment that I know of as a direct test of the influences of action and rest on the rate of regeneration from tissues under as nearly as possible identical conditions, being similar united portions of one individual.

VI. Medusæ having one or more of their mouth-arms removed regenerate these mouth-arms at irregular rates which are not closely associated with the number of arms cut away, or, in other words, with the degree of injury. Two medusæ, each having three of the eight mouth-arms removed, may show a greater difference between their average specific rates of regeneration than would be found to exist among the average specific rates of regeneration from individuals with one, two, four, or five mouth-arms cut away. (See table 2.) An individual from which several mouth-arms have been removed in as near as possible similar ways will exhibit as great a degree of variation among the specific regeneration rates of its several arms as will be found to exist among the average specific regeneration rates of many individuals, each having had a different number of arms removed. (Compare tables 3, 4, and 5 with table 2).

Cassiopea is well fitted for experiments of this nature, since the regenerating buds of the mouth-arms grow continuously and may be measured and compared at any time during the experiments. It is of advantage also to have the several mouth-arms almost identical in size and form, as a comparison of the regenerative processes from the individual arms of a single medusa is thus facilitated. Most of the experimental investigations pertaining to the question of the relation between the degree of injury and the rate of regeneration have been conducted on crustaceans. These animals must molt before the regenerating bud can be observed, and since the length of the molting period varies so widely among the individuals the true specific rate of regeneration is difficult to estimate. The regenerating bud very probably grows as much as the confining chitinous covering will

permit, just as the crustacean's body increases in size until its inelastic case will allow it to become no larger, and must then remain quiescent until the molting time arrives, which may be weeks or even months distant. There is also a great individual difference between the crustacean's appendages, which renders difficult a comparison of the regeneration rates from the different limb-stumps of the same specimen. *Cassiopea* is free from such objections, but it shows so much variation in the specific rates of regeneration from different individuals that it would be difficult as well as misleading to claim from the data, now at hand, that any relationship existed between the degree of injury an individual had sustained and its specific rate of regeneration.

VII. *Cassiopea* seems to be resistant to slight changes in osmotic pressure, as is indicated by its condition in concentrated and diluted sea-water.

(*a*) Regeneration from the disk of *Cassiopea* was slightly retarded in sea-water to which NaCl had been added. This retardation may possibly be due to the direct action of the Na ion, although considering the weakened condition of the medusæ in such solutions they might be expected to regenerate slower than the normal.

(*b*) Strong solutions of KCl also retard the rate of regeneration, but weaker solutions seem to accelerate the process.

(*c*) Solutions of $CaCl_2$ in sea-water have a tendency to cause muscular tetanus, the oral surface of the disk often tearing as a result of the violently contracted condition. The rate of regeneration in all $CaCl_2$ solutions was very slow, in some scarcely any regeneration taking place for a number of days.

(*d*) Magnesium chlorid in sea-water solutions exerts a rather indifferent influence over the rate of regeneration.

The chemical experiments show no marked indication of a difference in the specific action of the several ions upon the rate of regeneration. Even though such a specific influence of these ions does exist, it would be difficult to discover, owing to the complex nature of the processes regulating growth and regeneration. There is evident need of extensive and careful study along these lines.

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APPENDIX.

After the present paper had gone to press Dr. Zeleny published the results of a study on the effect of degree of injury, successive injury, and functional activity upon regeneration in the scyphomedusan *Cassiopea xamachana*.[1] In this paper he concludes that "removal of six of the eight oral arms constitutes the most favorable degree of injury for the regeneration of each arm, and that from this optimum there is a decrease in both directions." The data, however, on which this statement depends is not altogether conclusive. One finds on studying his table that the extremes of variation in regenerative rates among similarly injured individuals are in the large majority of cases greater than the differences between the average specific amounts of regeneration for two groups of individuals injured to different degrees. With such a wide range of variability shown among the few individuals one is uncertain as to the real significance of the table. Nevertheless, the data do seem to show a steady advance in specific rates of regeneration up to a maximum where six arms were removed.

In a general way my results on regeneration of the oral arms might also be interpreted, like Zeleny's averages, to show a gradual increase in regenerative rates with an increase in degree of injury. Zeleny seems inclined to emphasize the importance of this apparent increase in regenerative rates, while I believe the great range of variability in the regenerative rates shown by the small number of individuals studied should not be overlooked and that it renders a general conclusion from such observations very uncertain.

Zeleny's study of the effect of the rhythmical pulsation of the medusa disk on the rate of regeneration may be compared with my experiments bearing upon the same subject. Our results agree and both indicate, contrary to the view of some observers, that functional activity is negative in its influence on the rate of regeneration. Zeleny compared the regenerating margins and centers of medusæ disks pulsating rhythmically with those from other medusæ at rest, and found that in four of the six pairs of cases the non-pulsating individuals regenerated faster than the pulsating ones. In the fifth pair the two were equal, and in the sixth the pulsating individual regenerated faster.

The question might arise whether in my own experiments the influence from the pulsating half may not be conveyed to the resting half. Improbable as is such a view in itself, the interpretation is negatived by my con-

[1] Journal of Experimental Zoölogy, v, 2, pp. 265–274. 1907.

trols, some of which, as in Zeleny's experiments, consisted of an entire pulsating ring and others of the entire ring at rest.

The level at which the margin is removed determines the rate of regeneration from the cut surface, and this possibility is not mentioned in Zeleny's account. It is difficult to remove a marginal strip of exactly the same proportions from several medusæ, even when careful measurements are made. Slight differences in the depths of the cuts would easily account for the results, but since the rates of regeneration from both the center and outer margin are considered by Zeleny this is in a manner checked. In my "ring preparations" described above, the level of the cut is controlled as far as possible, since the disk center also forms the center of the circular mass of tissue that is removed. Thus the cut surface and the disk periphery are concentric circles; therefore, all places on the cut surface are at a common level. My observations are aided by the fact that the pulsations were continuous throughout the experiment, while Zeleny's rhythmical pulsations always stopped before the end of his experiment.

IV. SOME INTERNAL FACTORS CONCERNED WITH THE REGENERATION OF THE CHELÆ OF THE GULF-WEED CRAB (PORTUNUS SAYI).

BY CHARLES ZELENY,

Associate Professor of Zoology at Indiana University.

2 text figures and 11 "table" figures.

SOME INTERNAL FACTORS CONCERNED WITH THE REGENERATION OF THE CHELÆ OF THE GULF-WEED CRAB (PORTUNUS SAYI[1]).

By Charles Zeleny.

INTRODUCTION AND GENERAL STATEMENT OF RESULTS.

The primary object of the experiments described in the present paper was twofold: The quantitative determination (1) of the effect of successive removal of an organ upon its power to regenerate and (2) of the character of the changes, if any, produced in the uninjured parts of the animal by such removals. In connection with the first problem it was found necessary to determine as preliminary steps the common relations in the amount of regeneration, the length of the molting period, and the size or age of the animal. Since these are points of independent interest they are treated in separate sections at the beginning of the paper. The second problem was studied by a comparison of the character of the left chela in normal individuals with its character in individuals having a removed and regenerating right chela.

It was found that the length of the molting period is but slightly correlated with the amount of regeneration of the right chela and the size of the animal. Thus if all operations are made on the day after a molt the length of time elapsing before the next molt has very little to do with the amount of regeneration which takes place during the period. Likewise, animals of a size, which in general are probably of the same age, do not have the same length of molting period. On the other hand, there is a very close correlation between the size of the animal and the amount of regeneration taking place during a molting period.

On the basis of these results the molting period is taken as the unit in the determination of the amounts of successive regenerations. It is found in general that in individual crabs the third regeneration of the right chela is greater than the second, and the second is greater than the first. Since the animals are increasing in size and age during the course of the experiment, and since this may be sufficient to explain the increase in amount of regen-

[1] The experiments were performed at the Marine Biological Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington at Tortugas, Florida. I am indebted to the officers of the Carnegie Institution for the privileges of the laboratory during June and July, 1906. I wish especially to thank the Director, Dr. A. G. Mayer, for valuable suggestions and for many other courtesies without which the experiments could not have been successfully completed. The material obtained at Tortugas was measured and studied and the data were tabulated at the zoological laboratory of Indiana University during the school year 1906–1907. The present paper is listed as No. 87 of the contributions from the Zoological Laboratory of Indiana University.

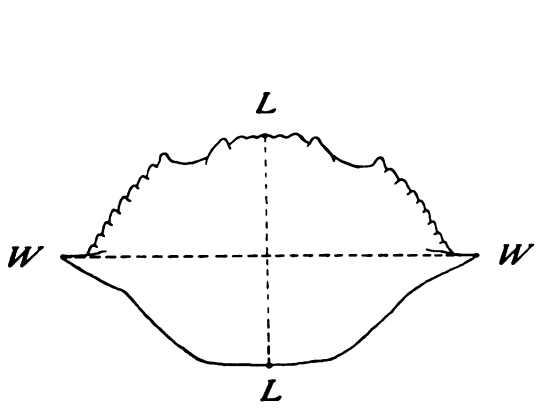
eration, it is necessary to correct the results by obtaining the specific amount of regeneration in each case; that is, the amount of regeneration divided by the cephalo-thoracic length. When this is done the result shows that the first two successive regenerations at least are equal and there is no change in the power to regenerate as a result of successive injury.

A comparison of the left chelæ in crabs which had been regenerating a right chela with the left chelæ in uninjured individuals shows that there is no appreciable change in the left chela as a result of the removal and regeneration of the right chela.

METHODS AND DATA.

The data are based on observations made upon 197 individuals of the gulf-weed crab during June and July, 1906. Specimens varying in size from 3 to 15 mm. were collected and placed in individual dishes, each with a floating piece of gulf-weed. Each crab was numbered and careful record was made of its molting times and other points of interest. The water was changed every day and the animals were fed on the small fish (atherina) every other day. Care was taken to keep all the conditions as nearly alike as possible in all the dishes. Regular observations were made every morning and at this time cast skins were removed and preserved and necessary operations were made. It was found that the increase in size of the animals was confined to the first day after a molt and all operations were accordingly made a day after the molt, so that the relation to the molting time might be alike in all. The operation in every case consisted of the removal of the right chela as its breaking joint. This was effected by injuring the nerve of the appendage with a needle or forceps. The removed appendage started to regenerate as a coiled bud inside of a chitinous sac. The first molt succeeding the operation released the new chela from its sac and allowed it to expand to its normal form. The external dimensions remained stationary after the first day following the molt. The regenerated chela was again removed on the day after the molt, and so on, as long as the time permitted. The cast skins of each molt, the removed right chelæ, and the final animals were all preserved and measured. A complete record of the history of the animals during the course of the experiments was thus obtained. This gives two series of data. The first gives the normal condition of the parts and the second the parts after the first, second, and third regenerations of the right chela. The different stages of each individual were measured and these and other data are collected in table 1. Full explanations are given in connection with the table. The length of the cephalo-thorax is the greatest length (LL) and the width the greatest width (WW) as shown in fig. 1. The chela-length is the length of the next to the last segment or propodite, as shown in fig. 2 (LL). It will be noticed in table 1 that in a great many cases the casts were broken. In most of these the crab had started to eat up its cast before the first day was up. The table includes *all* the measurements and other data without elimination, since

it seems necessary in investigations of the present character to be very careful in discarding "abnormal" cases. All cases needing special mention, including those not valid for the purposes of the present paper, are indicated by asterisks (*) and are referred to in the notes appended to the table.



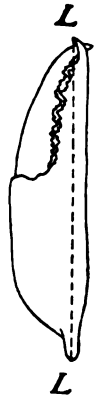


FIG. 1.—Cephalo-thorax of *Portunus sayi*. Dorsal view. × 4. *LL* = greatest length; *WW* = greatest width.

FIG. 2.—Propodite and dactylopodite of left chela (× 5). *Portunus sayi*. *LL* = greatest length of propodite.

To insure further control 24 uninjured individuals were collected at the same time as the others and their measurements are added to the normal series. These individuals are not included in table 1, but are indicated by asterisks in table 15.

RESULTS.

THE COMMON RELATIONSHIP IN SIZE OF THE INDIVIDUAL, LENGTH OF THE MOLTING PERIOD, AND THE AMOUNT OF REGENERATION.

(*a*) *Correlation between the cephalo-thoracic length and the length of the molting period.*—The cephalo-thoracic lengths in millimeters and the lengths in days of the molting periods of all valid individuals are used. For the first regeneration period these data are arranged in order of length of the molting period in table 3 and are shown in coördinate form in table 2. Tables 4 and 5 give the corresponding data for the second regeneration period. For both periods the tables show in a striking manner the low degree of correlation between the cephalo-thoracic length and the length of the molting period.

The conclusion is thus reached that between the limits of 3.9 mm. and 14.5 mm. the length of the molting period is to a large extent independent of the size or age of the animal. This is true when the reservation is made that between the smallest and the largest individuals there is some difference in the average length of the molting period.

(*b*) *Correlation between the length of the molting period and the amount of regeneration of the right chela.*—The lengths of the molting

periods and the amounts of regeneration of the propodite of the right chela in all valid cases are taken. For the first regeneration period these data are given in order of length of the molting period in table 6 and the same data are plotted in coördinate form in table 7. Tables 8 and 9 give corresponding data for the second regeneration period. An examination of these tables makes it evident that there is but a slight degree of correlation between the length of the molting period and the amount of regeneration. The amount of regeneration which takes place during a molting period is determined only to a very slight extent by the length of that period. It seems, therefore, that the regeneration takes place for the most part during the early days of a molting period and very little increase in size occurs during the later days. For this reason it is not possible in determining the rate of regeneration to use the absolute number of days during which regeneration has taken place.

(*c*) *Correlation between the cephalo-thoracic length and the amount of regeneration of the right chela.*—The cephalo-thoracic lengths and the amounts of regeneration of the propodites of the right chelæ in all valid cases are taken. Table 10 gives these data arranged according to cephalo-thoracic length for both the first and the second regeneration periods. The specific amount of regeneration, that is, the amount divided by the cephalo-thoracic length, is added for each individual. The individuals with a second regeneration are put as nearly as possible opposite individuals of the same size with a first regeneration. For the first regeneration period the data are further shown in coördinate table 11A and for the second regeneration in coördinate table 12. For both periods it is evident that there is a very close correlation between the size or age of the animal and the amount of regeneration of its right chela. With an increase in size there is thus a proportionate increase in the amount of regeneration that takes place during a molting period. This amount of regeneration is independent of the length of the molting period, as has already been shown in the last section. Therefore, in comparing the successive regenerations of the right chela, it is found best to use the molting period as a unit without regard to its length.

A study of tables 10, 11A, and 12 shows a further point of interest regarding the relation between the size of the crab and the amount of regeneration of its right chela. It is seen that as we go from the smaller to the larger individuals the amount of regeneration increases proportionately faster than the size of the animal. In tables 11A and 12 the dotted line is the line of average specific amount of regeneration, that is, the line along which all the measurements would be arranged in case the specific amounts were the same for animals of all sizes. It is seen that for the smaller individuals the measurements of regeneration-length come below the line and for the larger ones above it. Thus the larger individuals show proportionately a greater amount of regeneration than the smaller ones. This result is undoubtedly to be correlated with the fact that there is a corresponding proportionate increase in the size of the chelæ in uninjured individuals.

This increase is shown for the left chela in table 11C. Here the dotted line is the line along which all the chela measurements would come if all individuals had the same specific length of the left chela. As before, it is seen that the larger individuals have proportionately a larger chela than the smaller ones; that is, the specific length of the chela is greater in the former than in the latter.

COMPARISON OF THE REGENERATIONS OF THE RIGHT CHELA AFTER SUCCESSIVE INJURY.

(*a*) *The successive regenerations in single individuals.*—After the removal of all the possible sources of error that could be found 21 valid cases of successive regeneration remain. Table 13 gives these cases arranged in order of the lengths of the original right chelæ. Table 14 shows the same cases on coördinate paper with the original lengths of the chelæ represented by the abscissæ and the amounts of regeneration by the ordinates. The dotted line is the line of equal length of regenerated and original chelæ. A third regeneration was obtained in only two of the 21 cases. In one of these the first regeneration record is missing. Apart from this the third regeneration is greater than either the first or the second regeneration. In the 20 cases in which the first and second regenerations can be compared the two are alike in 1 individual, the first is greater than the second in 3, and *the second is greater than the first in* 16. Thus, in the great majority of cases, the rate of regeneration increases with the successive removal of the right chela. This result, however, does not take into account the possibility of change in the ability to regenerate due to an increase in size or age. The individual power to regenerate may be changing during the course of the experiment regardless of the removal or non-removal of an appendage. In the following section an attempt is made to eliminate this source of error and to determine whether the successive removal itself has any influence.

(*b*) *A comparison of the first and second regenerations of the right chela in individuals of the same size or age.*—Tables 10, 11A, and 12 have shown that with an increase in size there is a proportionate increase in the amount of regeneration of the right chela. Therefore the difference between the first and second regenerations shown in the last section may be due merely to this factor. A comparison of individuals of similar size is made for the first and second regenerations in tables 10 and 11B. In table 10 individuals of equal size are placed as nearly as possible opposite each other, so that a direct comparison of the amounts of regeneration may be made. In table 11B the abscissæ represent the cephalo-thoracic lengths and the ordinates the chela lengths. The first regenerations are shown by crosses and the second regenerations by circles. The dotted line is the line along which all the marks would be arranged if the specific amounts of regeneration were the same for all sizes of individuals and equal for the first and second

regenerations. An examination of these tables shows at once that there is no evident difference between the first and second regenerations when the size-difference is eliminated. For equal cephalo-thoracic lengths the amount of the first regeneration is approximately equal to that of the second. The average specific amount for the first regeneration is 0.791 with 66 cases and for the second regeneration 0.789 with 25 cases. The difference between the two is well within the limit of probable error. *Therefore the successive removal of the right chela does not retard nor accelerate the power to regenerate.*

EFFECT OF REMOVAL OF RIGHT CHELA UPON CONDITION OF LEFT CHELA.

Table 15 gives the cephalo-thoracic lengths, the left and right chela-lengths, and the specific lengths of the chela for 165 unoperated individuals.[1] The individuals are arranged in order of cephalo-thoracic length. The specific length of a left chela is the left chela-length divided by the cephalo-thoracic length. Table 11C shows the correlation between the left chela and the cephalo-thoracic length in the same individuals. The dotted line is the line of average specific chela-length; that is, the line along which all the data would be arranged if the specific lengths were alike for all sizes. Tables 16 and 11D give the corresponding data for individuals which have regenerated a right chela for the first time and tables 17 and 18 for second regeneration cases.

Tables 15 and 11C show that in unoperated individuals the left chela length is closely correlated with the cephalo-thoracic length. The average specific length of the left chela is 0.982, but an examination of the tables shows that smaller individuals have comparatively smaller chelæ than the larger ones, a fact which has already been referred to above.

Tables 16 and 11D for first-regeneration cases and tables 17 and 18 for second-regeneration cases show that there is no evident difference between the lengths of the left chela in these individuals and those in unoperated individuals. *The left chela is not influenced by the removal and regeneration of the right chela.* This is readily seen when the coördinate tables are superposed. Furthermore, the average specific length for first-regeneration cases is 0.993 and for second-regeneration cases 1.011 as against 0.982 for the unoperated cases. This progressive increase for the regeneration cases is, however, fully accounted for by the greater average cephalo-thoracic length of the regeneration cases as compared with the unoperated ones and by the fact that the specific amount of chela-length increases with the size of the individual.

[1] *Relative sizes of the right and left chelæ in uninjured individuals.*—In is interesting to note that the right chela is, on the whole, larger than the left. Of the 165 individuals whose chela-lengths are tabulated the two chelæ are of equal size in 49, the left chela is greater than the right in 19, and the right is greater than the left in 97. The average length of the propodite of the left chela is 5.77 mm. and of the right chela 5.84 mm., an advantage of 0.07 mm. in favor of the right chela.

DISCUSSION.

The relation between the molting period and the size or age of the crab.—Observations on Crustacea show that in general the molting period increases in length with age. In *Portunus sayi* this is true only to a very limited degree in animals between the sizes of 3 and 15 mm. It is probable, however, that very small individuals have a shorter molting period and very large ones a longer one. It is interesting to note in this connection that various observations have been made indicating an irregularity in the molting periods at different ages. Thus, in crayfish, Andrews finds that the increase in length of the molting periods with age is not regular.

The relation between the length of the molting period and the amount of regeneration taking place during the period.—The periodic casting of the exoskeleton in Crustacea and its profound physiological effect upon the whole organization of the animal introduces a factor which has important bearings upon the rate of regeneration. The nature of this relation is imperfectly known, but recent work by Emmel (1906) and others has thrown considerable light on the subject. It is evident that in dealing with Crustacea the molting factor must be eliminated as nearly as possible. One source of error was eliminated in the present experiments by making all operations on the day after a molt, so that all might have the same relation to the molt. The further question arose as to whether or not the length of time between the operation and the molt has any relation to the amount of regeneration. In other words, does regeneration go on at a uniform rate, regardless of the length of the molting period? The results of the present experiments show that, other things being equal, there is very little difference between the amount of regeneration in long periods and in shorter ones. This statement needs only the qualification that between the longest and the shortest periods there is an obvious difference between the amounts in favor of the longest periods, but this is not sufficient to give these a rate of regeneration even approximating to that of the shortest periods. This result makes it necessary in dealing with the comparison of amounts of regeneration to disregard length of time and to use the molting period as a unit. At least this is necessary until the common relations of molting period, size of animal, time of operation with reference to the molt, and amount of regeneration have been more fully worked out than they are at present.

The relation between the cephalo-thoracic length and the amount of regeneration.—Some work has been done upon the effect of age of an individual upon its power to regenerate. The general conclusion has been reached that the power to regenerate is less highly developed in older than in younger individuals, though notable exceptions to this rule have been found. In most of this former work the statements made have been un-

satisfactory, because of the few cases on which they are based and because of the lack of quantitative data.

In *Portunus sayi* it has been found that the amount of regeneration of the right chela increases regularly with the size of the animal between the limits of 3 and 15 mm. This increase is slightly greater than the increase in size, so that large individuals have a greater specific amount of regeneration than small ones. This increase in specific amount of regeneration is similar to the increase in specific length of the chela with size in unoperated individuals. Thus the chela regenerates at a rate which is proportional to the size of the removed chela, and when the regenerated chela-length is divided by the removed chela-length a quotient is obtained which is fairly constant for all sizes of individuals.

The effect of successive injury upon the regeneration of the right chela.— The effect of successive removal upon regeneration is mentioned again and again in the literature, but almost always in an indefinite way. According to the usual statement, a part capable of regeneration may be removed many times in succession without affecting its power of regeneration. The observed facts upon which this statement is based are as indefinite as the statement itself. The only definite contrary data I have been able to find are referred to in Stewart's Physiology, where the statement is incidentally made in describing an experiment on the regeneration of the sciatic nerve in the dog that the second regeneration was more rapid than the first.

The experiments on the gulf-weed crab (*Portunus sayi*) were made with the object of getting definite quantitative data regarding the relation between successive removal and regeneration. This form was chosen because it is desirable to use an appendage with a definite breaking joint, insuring the absolute indentity of the plane of removal in every case. It is evident that a slight difference in the plane of the cut may have a great influence upon the regeneration. The Crustacea, however, have a very obvious disadvantage. This is the molting habit. The regenerating chela in *Portunus* is coiled up within a chitinous sac until the time of molting. Another disadvantage connected with the same habit is the fact that the comparative character of regeneration at different times during the molting period has not been satisfactorily worked out. As stated above, this disadvantage has been eliminated as far as possible by making all operations at the same time with relation to the molt, namely, on the day after the molt, and by using the molting period and not the day as a unit of regeneration time. The latter was made possible by the determination of the fact that the length of the molting period influences the amount of regeneration only to a very slight degree within the limits of the experiment.

It was found that the amount of regeneration increases with successive removal. An investigation of the relation of this increase to the increase

in age of the animal, however, shows that it is due not to the successive removal and regeneration, but to other factors connected with the increase in age. In animals of equal size the first and second regenerations are equal, and successive removal neither accelerates nor retards the rate of regeneration.

It is interesting to compare this with former results. As stated above, the general statement has been made again and again that successive removal in many animals does not affect the power of regeneration. In none of the cases upon which this conclusion is based, however, was any correction made for change due to increase in age. If the present experiments had been left on a similar basis the data would have shown an increase in rate of regeneration with successive removal. It is only after the correction for increase in age is made that successive removal is seen to have no influence upon the regeneration of the right chela. The single case of the sciatic nerve of the dog mentioned by Stewart would probably, however, still show an increase in the rate of regeneration after correction for age increase. The general significance of a single case is, however, doubtful, because of the possibility of some physiological change apart from successive injury.

A discussion of the facts of successive regeneration is reserved until the writer has worked up other experiments which are now under way. It is obvious that an exact determination of the effect of successive removal of an organ upon its power to regenerate is of importance in a study of the character of the mechanism at the basis of the process of regeneration.

The effect of removal of the right chela upon the condition of the left chela.—Numerous experiments and general observations point to the conclusion that the removal of one of a pair of organs in cases where regeneration does not take place is followed by an increase in size and efficiency of the remaining organ. Thus, when an arm is removed the other arm increases in size and strength. The same holds for the kidney and other organs. It is of interest to determine whether in case the removed organ starts to regenerate the uninjured organ still undergoes a similar increase in size or efficiency. This matter is of considerable importance in a discussion on the one hand of the factors involved in hypertrophy and on the other hand of the factors concerned in the regeneration of the new organ. If the hypertrophy is due to an excess of production of certain formative or food materials, due to the absence of one of the consuming organs, and a regenerating appendage uses the same material, it is probable that in case regeneration takes place the uninjured organ will not increase in size. This is the result obtained in the case of the chelæ of *Portunus sayi*. The left chela is not larger in animals with a second or a first regeneration of the right chela than in animals of the same size with the right chela uninjured. This result is of special interest, because in *Portunus* the regenerating chela

does not begin to function as such until after the molt succeeding an operation. The whole chela function during this period is, therefore, carried on by the left chela, which, according to a common theory of hypertrophy, ought to increase in size because of this increase in function. Since it does not, it seems probable, if growth is dependent upon the presence of certain formative or food substances, that the excess of these is directed to the regenerating appendage. The conclusion may thus be reached that the regenerating appendage uses in its growth the same kind of material as that used by a growing uninjured chela. Furthermore, it follows that the distribution of this material is not necessarily determined solely by the exercise of its typical function by the organ in question.

This statement is offered merely as a suggestion, because the data of the present study are not sufficient for a comprehensive discussion. The method with proper control gives promise of considerable value in obtaining an understanding of the internal factors involved in hypertrophy and regeneration.

SUMMARY.

(1) Individuals of *Portunus sayi* with a cephalo-thoracic length between 3.9 and 14.5 mm. show but a slight correlation between the length of the molting period and the size or age of the animal.

(2) The amount of regeneration of the right chela between the same limits of size is likewise but slightly correlated with the length of the molting period, but is very closely correlated with the size of the animal.

(3) The specific amount of regeneration of the right chela increases slightly with increase in size or age of the animal.

(4) The specific length of the left chela in uninjured individuals increases slightly with increase in size or age of the animal.

(5) The proportion between the amount of regeneration of a chela and the length of the chela in uninjured individuals of the same size is a constant uninfluenced by the size of the animal.

(6) In single individuals the third regeneration is greater than the second and the second is greater than the first.

(7) When the correction for change in the power of regeneration with size or age is made it is found that successive removal neither retards nor accelerates the regeneration of the right chela.

(8) The right chela is slightly larger than the left in a great majority of the individuals.

(9) The removal and regeneration of the right chela produces no change in the growth of the uninjured left chela.

EXPLANATION OF TABLE I.

Original = Original condition of crab as indicated by cast skin of first molt or dead animal in case of death without a molt.
First molt = Condition of crab between first and second molts, as indicated by cast skin of second molt or dead animal in case of death before second molt.
Second molt = Condition of crab between second and third molts.
Third molt = Condition of crab between third and fourth molts.
Date = Date of molt, death, or removal of right chela.
Desc. = Description, as follows: *c* = Cast skin. *d* = Animal died. *k* = Animal killed. *o* = Right chela removed. 1st = first regeneration. 2nd = second regeneration. 3rd = third regeneration.
Cephalo-thorax: *Lg.* = greatest length in mm.; width = greatest width in mm.; *b* = broken.
Left chela = length of propodite in mm. as indicated in fig. 2 (*LL*); *b* = broken.
Right chela: *Lg.* = length of propodite in mm. as indicated in fig. 2 (*LL*); *b* = broken.
An asterisk before the catalogue number indicates that there is a note or notes on that individual. The part of the individual history to which the note belongs is indicated by an additional mark at that part.

TABLE I.—*Table of data.*

Catalog No.	Sex.	Original.							
		Date.	Desc.	Cephalo-thorax.		Left chela.	Right chela.		
				Lg.	Width.		Date	Desc.	Lg.
1394	--	June 25	*c*	3.5	6.0	3.3	June 16	*o*	3.3
*1395[1]	--	July 6	*c*	4.4	8.6	4.2	July 6	*c*	*b*
1396	--	July 11	*d*	4.3	7.2	4.0	July 11	*d*	4.0
1397	♂	June 20	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 20	*c*	*b*
*1398	♂	June 23	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 16	*o*	3.4
1399	♂	June 29	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 29	*c*	*b*
*1400	♂	June 17	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 17	*c*	*b*
*1401	--	June 28	*c*	4.8	8.9	*b*	June 28	*c*	4.9
*1402	--	June 27	*c*	4.8	8.7	4.7	June 16	*o*	4.8
*1403	♂	July 7	*c*	5.8	11.1	26.0	June 16	*o*	24.7
1404	♂	June 22	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 22	*c*	*b*
1405	♂	July 7	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 7	*c*	*b*
1406	♂	June 23	*c*	*b*	9.0	*b*	June 23	*c*	*b*
*1407	♂	June 22	*c*	*b*	*b*	3 *b*	June 22	*c*	3 *b*
*1408	--	June 19	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 16	*o*	*b*
*1409[4]	♂	June 19	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 19	*c*	*b*
1410	♂	June 29	*c*	6.5	12.0	*b*	June 16	*o*	6.5
1411	♂	June 26	*c*	*b*	*b*	6.7	June 26	*c*	6.8
1412	♂	July 2	*c*	7.0	12.2	*b*	July 2	*c*	*b*
1413	♂	June 23	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 23	*c*	*b*
1414	♂	June 19	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 19	*c*	*b*
*1415	♂	June 19	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 16	*o*	*b*
*1416	♂	June 21	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 21	*c*	*b*
*1417	♂	June 19	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 19	*c*	*b*
*1418	♂	June 19	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 16	*o*	7.0
1419	♂	June 20	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 20	*c*	*b*
*1420	♂	June 20	*c*	8.6	16.2	9.4	June 20	*c*	9.4
1421	♂	July 6	*c*	*b*	*b*	7.4	July 6	*c*	9.0
1422	♂	June 19	*c*	6.0	10.9	6.1	June 19	*c*	6.1
1423	♂	July 5	*c*	8.7	*b*	*b*	July 5	*c*	9.3
1424	♂	July 2	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 2	*c*	10.1
1425	♂	July 6	*c*	*b*	*b*	12.1	July 6	*c*	*b*

[1] 1395. Died in molting.
[2] 1403. Right chela is smaller than left and is probably a regenerated structure.
[3] 1407. Right chela smaller than left.
[4] 1409. June 25, third left leg missing.

TABLE 1.—*Table of data*—Continued.

Catalog No.	Sex.	Original.							
		Date.	Desc.	Cephalo-thorax.		Left chela.	Right chela.		
				Lg.	Width.		Date.	Desc.	Lg.
*1426[5]	♂	June 22	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 22	*c*	*b*
1427	♂	July 1	*c*	*b*	*b*	13.2	June 16	*o*	12.9
1428	♂	June 29	*c*	*b*	22.0	*b*	June 22	*c*	14.0
1508	--	June 26	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 26	*c*	*b*
1509	--	June 25	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	*c*	*b*
1510	--	July 9	*c*	4.2	7.3	3.9	July 9	*c*	3.9
*1511	--	June 26	*c*	3.3	5.8	*b*	June 26	*c*	*b*
1512	♂	July 12	*c*	4.5	7.9	*b*	July 12	*c*	4.3
1513	--	June 21	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 21	*c*	*b*
1514	--	June 29	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 29	*c*	*b*
1515	--	June 26	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 26	*c*	*b*
1516	--	July 1	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 1	*c*	*b*
*1517	--	June 25	*c*	3.8	6.2	*b*	June 25	*c*	*b*
*1518	♂	June 30	*c*	3.0	5.3	*b*	June 30	*c*	*b*
*1519	--	June 22	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 22	*c*	*b*
1520	♂	July 6	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 6	*c*	*b*
*1521	♂	July 7	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 7	*c*	*b*
*1522	♂	June 30	*c*	*b*	8.1	*b*	June 30	*c*	*b*
1523	♂	June 25	*c*	*b*	7.9	*b*	June 25	*c*	*b*
1524	♂	June 20	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 20	*c*	*b*
1525	--	July 5	*c*	6.4	*b*	*b*	July 5	*c*	*b*
1526	♂	June 27	*c*	5.8	10.7	*b*	June 27	*c*	*b*
*1527	--	June 25	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	*c*	*b*
1528	♂	June 20	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 20	*c*	*b*
1529	--	July 3	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 3	*c*	*b*
1530	♂	July 2	*c*	3.1	5.7	2.8	July 2	*c*	2.8
1531	--	July 2	*c*	3.6	6.0	*b*	July 2	*c*	*b*
1532	--	June 30	*c*	4.6	*c*	*b*	June 30	*c*	*b*
*1533[6]	--	July 4	*c*	4.0	8.1	3.8	July 4	*c*	3.9
*1534	♂	July 2	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 2	*c*	*b*
1535	♂	June 30	*c*	4.6	7.4	4.4	June 30	*c*	*b*
1536	--	June 30	*c*	*b*	6.0	*b*	June 30	*c*	*b*
1537	♂	July 7	*d*	6.1	11.2	6.4	July 7	*d*	6.4
1538	--	June 25	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	*c*	*b*
*1539	--	July 5	*c*	4.6	8.2	4.4	July 5	*c*	4.4
1540	--	July 1	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 1	*c*	*b*
*1541	♂	June 29	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 29	*c*	*b*
1542	--	June 27	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 27	*c*	*b*
1543	♂	July 2	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 2	*c*	2.8
1544	♂	July 5	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 5	*c*	*b*
*1545	♂	July 3	*c*	3.2	5.8	*b*	July 3	*c*	*b*
1546	--	June 25	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	*c*	*b*
*1547	--	July 1	*c*	3.1	5.6	*b*	July 1	*c*	*b*
1548	--	July 2	*c*	*b*	5.8	*b*	July 2	*c*	2.8
1549	--	July 9	*d*	4.1	7.2	3.8	July 9	*d*	3.9
*1550[7]	♂	June 30	*c*	5.3	8.4	4.4	June 30	*c*	4.5
1551	♂	July 7	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 7	*c*	*b*
1552	--	July 3	*c*	4.6	8.1	4.4	July 3	*c*	4.4
1553	--	June 29	*c*	3.0	5.5	*b*	June 29	*c*	*b*
1554	--	July 1	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 1	*c*	*b*
1555	♂	July 11	*c*	4.5	7.9	*b*	July 11	*c*	*b*
1556	--	July 4	*c*	3.1	5.6	*b*	July 4	*c*	*b*
1557	--	June 28	*c*	3.1	*b*	*b*	June 28	*c*	*b*

[5] 1426. June 25, left chela (probably regenerated) is smaller than right; third right walking-leg missing.

[6] 1533. Plane of removal not at breaking joint.

[7] 1550. Not the same species as majority.

TABLE 1.—*Table of data*—Continued.

Catalog No.	Sex.	Original.							
		Date.	Desc.	Cephalo-thorax.		Left chela.	Right chela.		
				Lg.	Width.		Date.	Desc.	Lg.
1558	--	July 1	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 1	*c*	*b*
1559	♂	July 8	*d*	6.2	11.3	6.3	July 8	*d*	6.3
*1560	--	[8]July 9	[8]*c*	6.1	11.4	6.1	July 9	*c*	6.2
1561	♂	June 25	*c*	6.1	11.1	6.3	June 25	*c*	6.2
1562	♂	July 2	*c*	4.6	8.6	*b*	July 2	*c*	*b*
*1563	♂	July 1	*c*	*b*	11.6	6.2	July 1	*c*	6.2
1564	--	June 30	*c*	3.6	5.7	3.2	June 30	*c*	3.2
*1565[9]	♂	July 4	*c*	5.1	*b*	4.8	July 4	*c*	4.9
1566	--	June 25	*c*	5.9	11.1	6.1	June 25	*c*	6.3
1567	♂	June 25	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	*c*	*b*
1568	--	June 26	*c*	*b*	8.6	4.5	June 26	*c*	*b*
*1569	--	July 5	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 5	*c*	*b*
*1570	♂	June 29	*c*	4.0	8.4	*b*	June 29	*c*	*b*
1571	--	July 2	*c*	3.9	6.2	*b*	July 2	*c*	*b*
*1572	--	July 2	*c*	*b*	6.0	*b*	July 2	*c*	*b*
1573	--	June 28	*c*	3.4	5.4	*b*	June 28	*c*	*b*
1574	--	July 17	*d*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 17	*d*	*b*
1575	♂	July 1	*c*	2.6	3.8	*b*	July 1	*c*	*b*
1576	--	July 6	*c*	3.0	5.4	*b*	July 6	*c*	2.7
*1577	♂	July 2	*c*	2.8	3.7	*b*	July 2	*c*	*b*
1578	--	July 1	*c*	3.2	6.0	2.9	July 1	*c*	2.8
1579	--	June 25	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	*c*	*b*
1580	♂	July 2	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 2	*c*	*b*
1581	--	June 30	*c*	3.0	5.5	*b*	June 30	*c*	*b*
1582	--	June 26	*c*	3.1	5.8	*b*	June 26	*c*	*b*
*1583	--	[10]July 7	*d*	4.5	7.9	4.3	July 7	*d*	4.4
1584	♂	July 7	*c*	4.4	*b*	4.1	July 7	*c*	4.2
1585	♂	June 25	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	*c*	*b*
1586	--	June 29	*c*	*b*	5.6	*b*	June 29	*c*	*b*
1587	♂	July 1	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 1	*c*	*b*
*1588	♂	June 30	*c*	4.6	8.2	*b*	June 30	*c*	*b*
1589	♂	June 27	*c*	3.2	5.8	*b*	June 27	*c*	*b*
1590	♂	June 24	*c*	3.1	5.9	2.8	June 24	*c*	2.9
*1591	♂	June 24	*c*	4.8	9.0	5.0	June 24	*c*	5.0
*1592[11]	♂	June 24	*c*	3.3	5.4	3.1	June 24	*c*	3.1
1593	♂	June 24	*c*	4.7	8.5	*b*	June 24	*c*	4.9
1594	--	June 24	*c*	2.8	3.8	*b*	June 24	*c*	*b*
1595	--	June 24	*c*	4.8	8.5	*b*	June 24	*c*	*b*
1596	--	June 24	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 24	*c*	*b*
1597	♂	June 24	*c*	4.7	8.7	4.7	June 24	*c*	4.7
*1598	♂	June 24?	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 24	*c*	*b*
*1599[12]	♂	June 24	*c*	2.4	*b*	*b*	June 24	*c*	*b*
1600	--	June 24	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 24	*c*	4.9
*1601	♂	June 23	*c*	3.2	5.6	*b*	June 23	*c*	*b*
1602	♂	June 23	*c*	3.1	*b*	*b*	June 23	*c*	*b*
1603	♂	July 12	*c*	4.9	8.6	4.9	July 12	*c*	4.9
1604	♂	June 30	*c*	5.0	8.9	4.9	June 30	*c*	*b*
1605	♂	June 27	*c*	4.6	8.2	4.3	June 27	*c*	4.4
1606	♂	July 2	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 2	*c*	*b*
1607	♂	June 27	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 27	*c*	*b*
*1608[13]	♂	June 26	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 26	*c*	*b*

[8] 1560. Died in molting.
[9] 1565. Not the same species as majority.
[10] 1583. Died in molting.
[11] 1592. July 7, first regeneration, removal not at breaking joint; fourth molt = July 31, *k*, 6.8, 12.2, 6.8; July 30, 3d, 4.5.
[12] 1599. Not the same species as the majority; fourth molt = July 31, *k* and *m*, 4.5, 7.2, 4.0; July 31, 3d, 2.9.
[13] 1608. Record not clear; time of original operation not given.

TABLE I.—*Table of data*—Continued.

Catalog No.	Sex.	Original.							
		Date.	Desc.	Cephalo-thorax.		Left chela.	Right chela.		
				Lg.	Width.		Date.	Desc.	Lg.
*1609	♂	June 30	*c*	4.5	7.6	*b*	June 30	*c*	*b*
1610	♂	July 3	*c*	5.0	9.0	*c*	July 3	*b*	*b*
1611	--	July 12	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 12	*c*	*b*
1612	♂	July 7	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 7	*c*	*b*
*1613[14]	♂	June 29	*c*	3.0	5.4	*b*	June 29	*c*	*b*
*1614	--	July 3	*c*	3.0	5.2	*b*	July 3	*c*	*b*
*1615	--	June 26	*c*	3.0	5.4	*b*	June 26	*c*	*b*
1616	♂	June 25	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	*c*	*b*
*1617	♂	June 27	*c*	4.6	8.1	4.4	June 27	*c*	4.4
*1618	--	June 30	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 30	*c*	*b*
*1619[15]	--	June 26	*c*	4.6	7.8	*b*	June 26	*c*	4.5
*1620	♂	June 28	*c*	2.9	3.9	*b*	June 28	*c*	*b*
*1621	♂	June 28	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 28	*c*	*b*
*1622	--	July 8	*c*	2.9	5.3	*b*	July 8	*c*	*b*
1623	--	June 27	*c*	2.9	5.3	*b*	July 8	*c*	*b*
*1624	--	June 28	*c*	3.1	5.8	*b*	June 24	*c*	*b*
1625	--	July 12	*d*	3.0	5.7	2.7	July 12	*d*	2.7
1626	♂	June 29	*c*	3.1	5.4	*b*	June 29	*c*	*b*
1627	♂	July 6	*c*	4.7	8.5	4.4	July 6	*c*	4.6
*1628	♂	July 6	*c*	4.5	8.3	*b*	July 6	*c*	4.4
*1629	♂	June 27	*c*	4.5	*b*	*b*	June 27	*c*	*b*
1630	--	July 14	*c*	4.0	7.0	3.8	July 14	*c*	3.8
1631	--	July 4	*c*	*b*	*b*	4.1	July 4	*c*	*b*
1632	♂	June 25	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	*c*	*b*
*1633	--	June 24	*c*	3.2	5.9	*b*	June 24	*c*	*b*
1634	♂	June 27	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 27	*c*	*b*
*1635	--	June 23	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 23	*c*	*b*
*1636	♂	June 27	*c*	5.9	10.7	5.8	June 27	*c*	5.9
*1637	♂	June 29	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 29	*c*	*b*
*1638	--	July 5	*c*	3.8	7.6	*b*	July 5	*c*	3.6
*1639[16]	--	June 28	*c*	3.0	5.7	*b*	June 28	*c*	*b*
*1640[17]	♂	June 24	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 24	*c*	*b*
1641	--	June 25	*c*	4.7	8.5	*b*	June 25	*c*	*b*
*1642	--	June 28	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 28	*c*	*b*
*1731	--	July 1	*c*	4.5	8.7	*b*	July 1	*c*	*b*
1732	--	July 3	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 3	*c*	*b*
1733	--	July 11	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 11	*c*	*b*

[14] 1613. June 30, left chela (probably regenerated) smaller than right.

[15] 1619. June 27, right chela (probably regenerated) larger than left, 4th left walking-leg absent; July 5, both chelæ regenerated and of equal size; July 6, right chela (first regeneration) removed; July 21, right chela = small regenerating bud, left chela removed; July 27, both chelæ absent.

[16] 1639. June 29. Right chela (probably regenerated) smaller than left, 2d, 3d, and 4th right walking-legs missing; July 20, right chela smaller than left; July 27, both chelæ present.

[17] 1640. June 25, 2d and 3d left and 2d, 3d, 4th, and 5th right walking-legs missing.

TABLE I.—*Table of data*—Continued.

Catalog No.	Sex.	First molt. Date.	Desc.	Cephalo-thorax. Lg.	Cephalo-thorax. Width.	Left chela.	Right chela. Date.	Right chela. Desc.	Right chela. Lg.
1394	--	July 4	*c*	3.9	6.2	*b*	June 26	1st	2.8
1397	♂	July 9	*c*	4.3	7.7	4.1	July 9	*c*	4.1
*1398	♂	July 5	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	1st	[18]2.9
1399	♂	July 11	*c*	3.9	7.0	3.8	July 11	*c*	3.9
*1400	♂	July 6	*c*	6.3	*b*	*b*	July 6	*c*	6.5
*1401	--	July 10	*c*	5.6	10.0	*b*	June 29	*o*	5.7
*1402	--	July 11	*c*	*b*	9.8	5.4	June 28	1st	4.6
*1403	♂	July 22	*c*	6.8	12.3	6.7	July 8	[19]1st	5.4
1404	♂	July 12	*c*	5.9	9.2	5.8	July 12	*c*	5.8
1405	♂	July 17	*c*	6.2	11.4	6.3	July 8	*o*	6.3
1406	♂	July 8	*c*	5.6	10.8	5.8	June 25	*o*	5.8
*1407	♂	July 8	*c*	7.3	13.9	7.9	June 25	*o*	7.4
*1408	--	June 26	*c*	*b*	*b*	6.3	June 19	1st	
*1409	♂	July 9	*c*	7.9	15.0	8.1	July 9	*c*	8.4
1410	♂	July 13	*c*	7.4	13.7	7.6	June 30	1st	7.2
1411	♂	July 12	*c*	7.9	14.7	8.1	June 27	*o*	8.5
1412	♂	July 18	*c*	8.0	14.8	8.7	July 3	*o*	8.8
1413	♂	July 9	*c*	7.8	14.3	8.2	June 25	*o*	8.3
1414	♂	July 9	*c*	8.3	14.8	8.4	July 9	*c*	*b*
*1415	♂	July 3	*c*	*b*	*b*	8.1	July 3	*c*	*b*
*1416	♂	July 11	*c*	8.2	14.9	8.2	July 11	*c*	8.5
*1417	♂	July 10	*c*	*b*	*b*	10.2	July 10	*c*	10.4
*1418	♂	July 8	*c*	*b*	17.3	9.3	June 20	1st	
1419	♂	July 8	*c*	7.4	13.6	8.3	June 25	*o*	8.4
*1420	♂	July 11	*c*	*b*	*b*	[20]11.0	July 11	*c*	[20]11.0
1421	♂	July 23	*c*	10.1	19.0	9.6	July 7	*o*	10.7
1422	♂	July 5	*c*	7.9	14.7	8.2	June 25	*o*	8.6
1423	♂	July 20	*c*	9.7	18.0	9.8	July 6	*o*	10.0
1424	♂	July 22	*d*	11.2	20.7	12.3	July 3	*o*	12.3
1425	♂	July 12	*d*	12.4	23.7	14.5	July 7	*o*	14.5
*1426	♂	July 7	*c*	*b*	*b*	9.5	June 25	*o*	10.3
1427	♂	July 12	*d*	12.3	23.5	14.8	July 2	1st	13.8
1428	♂	July 12	*d*	14.4	26.5	17.0	June 30	*o*	17.3
1508	--	July 8	*d*	4.3	7.6	4.2	June 27	*o*	4.4
1509	--	July 9	*d*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 26	*o*	4.2
1510	--	July 13	*d*	4.8	8.2	4.4	July 10	*o*	4.5
*1511	--	[21]July 10	*d*	4.3	7.5	*b*	July 10	*b*	4.2
1512	♂	July 27	*c*	5.1	9.2	*b*	July 13	*o*	4.9
1513	--	July 4	*c*	*b*	*b*	4.0	July 4	*c*	4.2
1514	--	July 10	*c*	4.1	7.2	3.7	June 30	*o*	3.8
1515	--	July 8	*d*	4.2	7.4	4.0	June 27	*o*	3.9
1516	--	July 13	*c*	3.8	6.6	3.5	July 2	*o*	3.5
*1517	--	July 9	*c*	4.4	7.7	*b*	June 26	*o*	4.3
*1518	♂	July 11	*c*	3.4	7.1	*b*	July 1	*o*	3.3
*1519	--	[22]July 10	*c*	4.1	7.2	3.9	June 25	*o*	4.1
1520	♂	July 19	*c*	6.7	*b*	6.9	July 7	*o*	6.3
*1521	♂	July 19	*c*	5.4	10.1	5.3	July 8	*o*	5.6
*1522	♂	July 9	*c*	5.7	10.1	5.8	July 1	*o*	6.0
1523	♂	(?)	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 26	*o*	4.3
1524	♂	July 5	*c*	*b*	*b*	8.6	June 25	*o*	8.6
1525	--	July 17	*c*	7.3	13.2	7.3	July 6	*o*	7.4
1526	♂	July 11	*c*	6.9	12.4	6.8	June 28	*o*	7.0
*1527	--	[23]July 13	*c*	*b*	14.5	6.8	June 26	*o*	6.5
1528	♂	July 6	*c*	*b*	*b*	8.6	July 6	*c*	8.7
1529	--	July 14	*c*	6.6	12.3	6.8	July 4	*o*	7.0
1530	♂	July 21	*c*	*b*	8.6	*b*	July 3	*o*	3.3

[18] 1398. Deformed.
[19] 1403. Better classed as second regeneration.
[20] 1420. Approximate value.
[21] 1511. Died in molting.
[22] 1519. Died in molting.
[23] 1527. Died in molting.

TABLE I.—*Table of data*—Continued.

Catalog No.	Sex.	First molt.							
		Date.	Desc.	Cephalo-thorax.		Left chela.	Right chela.		
				Lg.	Width.		Date.	Desc.	Lg.
1531	--	July 13	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 3	*o*	4.1
1532	--	July 13	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 1	*o*	5.6
*1533	--	July 6	*d*	4.6	9.2	4.3	July 5	*o*	4.4
*1534	♂	July 14	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 3	*o*	3.4
1535	♂	July 11	*c*	5.3	9.7	5.2	July 1	*o*	5.4
1536	--	July 10	*c*	4.3	7.5	4.0	July 1	*o*	4.2
1538	--	July 9	*d*	6.2	11.3	6.1	June 26	*o*	6.3
*1539	--	[24]July 5	*d*	---	----	----	--------	--	---
1540	--	July 13	*c*	4.4	7.9	*b*	July 2	*o*	4.4
*1541	♂	July 12	*c*	5.4	9.8	5.2	June 30	*o*	5.5
1542	--	July 9	*d*	5.6	10.1	5.6	June 28	*o*	5.7
1543	♂	July 15	*d*	3.5	7.0	3.3	July 3	*o*	3.4
1544	♂	July 18	*c*	5.1	10.9	4.8	July 6	*o*	5.0
*1545	♂	July 15	*c*	3.6	7.5	3.5	July 4	*o*	3.5
1546	--	July 12	*c*	5.7	10.1	5.7	July 12	*c*	5.8
*1547	--	[25]July 22	[25]*c*	*b*	7.3	*b*	July 2	*o*	3.4
1548	--	July 23	*d*	3.6	7.3	3.2	July 3	*o*	3.4
*1550	♂	July 17	*c*	6.3	11.3	*b*	July 1	*o*	5.8
1551	♂	July 25	*c*	6.5	12.6	7.3	July 8	*o*	6.8
1552	--	July 17	*d*	5.2	9.2	5.0	July 4	*o*	5.1
1553	--	July 2	*d*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 30	*o*	3.2
1554	--	July 11	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 2	*o*	4.4
1555	♂	July 31	*k*	5.0	9.1	4.7	July 12	*o*	4.9
1556	--	July 19	*d*	3.5	6.8	3.2	July 5	*o*	3.3
1557	--	July 8	*c*	3.5	7.0	3.2	July 8	*c*	3.2
1558	--	July 12	*c*	5.5	10.4	5.6	July 2	*o*	5.6
1561	♂	July 10	*c*	7.3	13.5	7.7	June 26	*o*	7.8
1562	♂	July 15	*c*	*b*	10.3	5.6	July 3	*o*	5.7
*1563	♂	July 17	*c*	6.9	13.4	6.9	July 2	*o*	7.1
1564	--	July 10	*c*	4.2	7.0	4.4	July 1	*o*	4.2
*1565	♂	July 21	*c*	6.4	9.3	6.1	July 5	*o*	5.9
1566	--	July 9	*d*	7.3	13.2	7.4	June 26	*o*	7.6
1567	♂	July 8	*c*	6.0	11.0	*b*	June 26	*o*	6.1
1568	--	July 9	*c*	5.7	10.4	5.9	June 27	*o*	6.0
*1569	--	July 13	*c*	*b*	6.8	*b*	July 6	*o*	3.6
*1570	♂	[26]July 18	*c*	4.7	10.0	4.5	June 30	*o*	4.6
1571	--	July 5	*d*	4.2	7.5	4.1	July 3	*o*	4.1
*1572	--	July 13	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 3	*o*	4.2
1573	--	July 9	*c*	3.9	6.8	3.8	June 29	*o*	3.8
1575	♂	July 10	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 2	*o*	2 .9
1576	--	July 31	*k*	3.6	7.0	3.2	July 7	*o*	3.2
*1577	♂	July 13	*c*	3.2	5.2	*b*	July 3	*o*	3.1
1578	--	July 12	*c*	3.7	7.6	3.5	July 2	*o*	3.5
1579	--	July 7	*d*	5.9	10.8	5.8	July 7	*c*	5.9
1580	♂	July 12	*c*	3.4	5.5	3.1	July 3	*o*	3.2
1581	--	July 10	*c*	3.6	7.3	3.2	July 1	*o*	3.4
1584	♂	July 18	*d*	6.7	12.1	6.7	July 8	*o*	5.0
1585	♂	July 11	*c*	5.9	10.7	5.9	July 11	*c*	5.9
1586	--	July 13	*c*	3.8	7.5	3.5	July 13	*c*	3.5
1587	♂	July 10	*c*	3.3	5.4	3.0	July 2	*o*	3.0
1588	♂	July 12	*c*	5.4	10.0	5.5	July 1	*o*	5.6
1589	♂	July 8	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 28	*o*	3.8
1590	♂	July 8	*c*	*b*	5.7	3.6	July 8	*c*	*b*
*1591[27]	♂	July 10	*c*	6.4	11.7	6.5	June 25	*o*	6.7
*1592	♂	July 6	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	*o*	4.0
1593	♂	July 13	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 13	*c*	*b*
1594	--	July 9	*c*	3.2	5.7	3.2	June 25	*o*	3.1
1595	--	July 11	*c*	5.6	10.5	5.9	June 25	*o*	6.0

[24] 1539. Died in molting.
[25] 1547. Died in molting.
[26] 1570. Date not certain.
[27] 1591. Curved.

TABLE 1.—*Table of data*—Continued.

Catalog No.	Sex.	First molt.							
		Date.	Desc.	Cephalo-thorax.		Left chela.	Right chela.		
				Lg.	Width.		Date.	Desc.	Lg.
1596	—	July 7	*c*	4.3	7.7	4.1	June 25	*o*	4.2
1597	♂	July 11	*c*	6.3	11.1	6.3	July 11	*c*	6.4
*1598	♂	July 5	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 26	*o*	4.4
*1599	♂	July 4	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	*o*	2.5
1600	--	July 7	*d*	6.2	11.8	6.6	June 25	*o*	6.8
*1601	♂	July 4	*c*	4.0	8.1	3.8	June 25	*o*	3.8
1602	♂	July 11	*c*	4.1	8.2	3.7	July 11	*c*	3.7
1603	♂	July 28	*c*	5.8	10.3	5.8	July 13	*o*	5.4
1604	♂	July 19	*d*	5.7	10.6	5.8	July 1	*o*	5.3
1605	♂	July 13	*c*	5.7	10.7	5.8	June 28	*o*	5.8
1606	♂	July 14	*c*	4.5	8.4	4.8	July 3	*o*	4.2
1607	♂	June 12	*c*	5.9	10.9	5.9	July 12	*c*	5.9
*1608	♂	July 12	*c*	5.8	10.7	*b*	June 27	1st	5.0
*1609	♂	July 30	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 1	*o*	5.3
1610	♂	July 18	*c*	5.8	10.6	*b*	July 4	*o*	5.8
1611	--	July 29	*c*	5.6	10.1	*b*	July 13	*o*	5.5
1612	♂	July 21	*c*	*b*	*b*	5.0	July 8	*o*	5.0
*1613	♂	July 16	*d*	3.5	6.9	2.7	June 30	*o*	3.3
*1614	--	July 13	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	[28]July 4	*o*	2.9
*1615	--	July 13	*d*	3.5	6.8	3.1	[29]June 27	*o*	*b*
1616	♂	July 8	*c*	*b*	11.2	6.0	June 26	*o*	6.1
*1617	♂	July 12	*c*	5.2	9.2	5.0	June 28	*o*	5.3
*1618	--	July 14	*c*	6.4	12.0	5.8	July 1	*o*	5.5
*1619	--	July 5	*c*	*b*	*b*	4.9	June 27	*o*	6.1
*1620	♂	July 8	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 29	*o*	2.9
*1621[30]	♂	July 14	*c*	4.2	7.3	*b*	July 14	*c*	*b*
*1622	--	July 28	*d*	3.4	6.5	3.1	[31]July 9	*o*	2.7
1623	--	July 17	*d*	3.6	7.1	3.3	July 17	*d*	3.4
*1624	--	July 10	*c*	*b*	*b*	2.9	[32]June 29	*o*	3.0
1626	♂	July 12	*c*	3.6	7.0	*b*	July 12	*c*	3.3
1627	♂	July 17	*c*	5.4	10.0	*b*	July 7	*o*	5.5
*1628	♂	July 18	*c*	5.1	9.6	5.2	July 7	*o*	5.2
*1629	♂	July 10	*c*	5.2	9.6	5.2	July 10	*c*	5.3
1630	--	July 17	*d*	4.9	8.0	4.3	July 15	*o*	4.4
1631	--	July 15	*d*	5.2	8.8	4.7	July 5	*o*	4.8
1632	♂	July 12	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 12	*c*	*b*
*1633	--	July 3	*c*	4.0	8.0	3.7	June 25	*o*	3.6
1634	♂	July 9	*c*	5.5	*b*	*b*	July 9	*c*	4.8
*1635	--	July 12	*c*	3.9	8.0	3.7	June 25	*o*	3.8
*1636	♂	July 12	*c*	6.9	13.7	7.5	July 12	*c*	*b*
*1637	♂	July 11	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 11	*c*	*b*
*1638	--	July 31	*k*	4.5	9.0	[33]3.6	July 6	*o*	4.2
*1639	--	(?)	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 29	*o*	2.6
*1640	♂	July 2	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	June 25	*o*	6.9
1641	--	July 8	*c*	5.4	10.2	6.4	July 8	*c*	6.6
*1642	--	July 13	*c*	7.2	12.7	7.5	June 29	*o*	7.5
*1731	--	July 12	*c*	*b*	*b*	6.6	July 2	*o*	6.6
1733	--	July 14	*c*	*b*	7.0	3.8	July 4	*o*	3.9
1733	--	July 24	*c*	5.1	9.8	5.4	July 12	*o*	5.5

[28] 1614. July 4, right chela (probably regenerated) smaller than left.
[29] 1615. Right chela and third right walking-leg missing.
[30] 1621. Curved.
[31] 1622. Date not certain.
[32] 1624. Breaking plane ragged.
[33] 1638. July 6, both chelæ removed, left (probably regenerated) is smaller than right; July 27, both chelæ absent.

TABLE I.—*Table of data*—Continued.

Catalog No.	Sex.	Second molt.							
		Date.	Desc.	Cephalo-thorax.		Left chela.	Right chela.		
				Lg.	Width		Date.	Desc.	Lg.
1394	--	July 6	*d*	4.0	7.0	3.9	July 5	2d	3.0
1397	♂	July 21	*c*	4.7	8.6	*b*	July 10	*o*	*b*
*1398	♂	July 21	*c*	4.7	8.2	4.5	July 6	2d	3.3
1399	♂	July 19	*d*	4.5	7.6	4.1	July 12	*o*	4.1
*1400	♂	July 20	*c*	7.3	14.0	7.7	July 7	*o*	7.8
*1401	--	[34]July 24	*c*	6.6	11.7	6.6	July 11	1st	5.0
*1402	--	July 31	*c*	6.0	11.1	5.9	July 12	2d	[35]
*1403	♂	July 31	*k*	7.3	13.7	7.4	July 23	[36]2d	5.7
1404	♂	July 31	*k*	6.7	12.2	6.5	July 13	*o*	6.7
1405	♂	July 31	*k*	7.4	13.2	7.4	July 18	1st	6.1
*1406	♂	July 22	*c*	6.4	12.0	6.5	July 9	1st	5.1
*1407	♂	July 24	*c*	8.6	15.8	9.1	July 9	1st	7.7
1408	--	July 11	*c*	7.1	13.5	7.2	June 27	[37]1st	6.7
*1409	♂	July 23	*c*	9.1	17.1	9.6	July 10	*o*	9.6
1410	♂	July 27	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 14	2d	7.3
1411	♂	July 30	*c*	*b*	*b*	9.6	July 13	1st	7.6
1412	♂	July 31	*k*	9.0	16.2	9.5	July 19	1st	6.0
1413	♂	July 27	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 10	1st	7.8
1414	♂	July 29	*c*	9.2	16.9	9.2	July 10	*o*	9.4
*1415	♂	July 20	*c*	8.8	15.9	9.6	July 4	[38]1st	8.1
*1416	♂	July 28	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 12	*o*	10.0
*1417	♂	[39]July 29	*c*	11.0	21.3	12.1	July 11	*o*	12.3
*1418	♂	July 28	*c*	9.7	19.4	10.8	July 9	[40]1st	9.7
1419	♂	July 24	*c*	9.1	16.1	9.3	July 9	1st	8.3
*1420	♂	July 29	*c*	12.7	24.0	14.3	July 12	*o*	14.6
1421	♂	July 31	*k*	11.6	21.9	11.2	July 24	1st	10.3
1422	♂	July 23	*c*	9.1	16.7	9.4	July 6	1st	8.2
1423	♂	July 31	*k*	11.0	20.6	11.4	July 21	1st	9.4
*1426	♂	July 24	*c*	*b*	20.6	11.2	July 8	1st	10.2
1512	♂	July 31	*k*	5.6	10.3	5.5	July 28	1st	3.9
1513	--	July 12	*d*	4.7	7.9	4.4	July 5	*o*	4.5
1514	--	July 24	*c*	4.6	8.5	4.4	July 11	1st	3.6
1516	--	July 28	*d*	4.2	7.2	3.8	July 14	1st	2.9
*1517	♂	[41]July 24	*d*	5.1	9.1	5.0	July 10	1st	3.8
*1518	♂	July 25	*c*	*b*	8.6	*b*	July 12	[42]1st	2.5
1520	♂	July 20	*d*	*b*	*b*	7.5	July 20	1st	5.9
*1521	♂	July 31	*k*	6.1	11.1	6.1	July 20	[43]1st	3.8
*1522	♂	July 24	*c*	6.5	11.6	*b*	July 10	[44]1st	4.6
1523	♂	July 21	*c*	6.2	11.0	6.2	July 21	*c* 1st	5.4
1524	♂	July 22	*c*	9.2	16.6	9.7	July 6	1st	8.4
1525	♂	July 31	*k*	8.5	15.2	8.5	July 18	1st	6.8
1526	♂	July 26	*c*	7.8	13.8	7.6	July 12	1st	6.2
1528	♂	July 21	*c*	9.6	17.7	10.1	July 7	*o*	10.1
1529	--	July 28	*c*	7.7	14.7	8.3	July 15	1st	6.7
1530	♂	July 31	*k*	5.0	9.8	4.6	July 22	1st	4.0
1531	--	July 20	*d*	4.6	8.4	4.4	July 14	1st	3.8
1532	--	July 24	*c*	6.3	11.1	6.3	July 14	1st	5.2
*1534	♂	July 22	*c*	6.5	11.4	5.4	July 15	[45]1st	*b*
1535	♂	July 31	*k*	5.8	10.8	5.8	July 12	1st	4.4
1536	--	July 26	*d*	4.9	8.6	4.7	July 11	1st	3.9
1540	--	July 26	*d*	5.0	9.2	5.1	July 14	1st	3.8

[34] 1401. Died in molting.
[35] 1402. Deformed.
[36] 1403. Better classed as third regeneration.
[37] 1408. First regeneration extends over two molts.
[38] 1415. Extends over two molts.
[39] 1417. Died in molting.
[40] 1418. First regeneration extends over two molts.
[41] 1517. Died in molting.
[42] 1518. Slightly deformed.
[43] 1521. Deformed.
[44] 1522. Deformed.
[45] 1534. Lost in molting.

TABLE I.—*Table of data*—Continued.

Catalog No.	Sex.	Second molt.							
		Date.	Desc.	Cephalo-thorax.		Left chela.	Right chela.		
				Lg.	Width		Date	Desc.	Lg.
*1541	♂	[46]July 25	*c*	6.4	11.6	6.3	July 13	1st	5.5
1544	♂	July 31	*k*	5.9	12.5	5.8	July 19	1st	4.2
*1545	♂	July 28	*c*	4.2	8.4	4.0	July 16	[47]1st	*b*
1546	--	July 13	*d*	*b*	*b*	6.0	-------	--	---
*1550	♂	July 31	*k*	6.8	12.7	6.0	July 18	1st	4.9
1551	♂	July 31	*k*	7.9	14.6	8.1	July 26	1st	6.6
1554	--	July 25	*c*	5.1	9.1	4.9	July 12	1st	4.0
1557	--	July 27	*d*	4.4	8.5	4.0	July 9	*o*	3.5
1558	--	July 13	*d*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 13	*d*	*b*
1561	♂	July 23	*c*	8.8	15.5	9.1	July 11	1st	8.3
1502	♂	July 31	*k*	6.1	11.3	6.3	July 16	1st	5.2
*1563	♂	July 31	*k*	9.1	16.8	9.2	July 18	[48]1st	*b*
1564	--	July 30	*d*	4.7	8.0	4.5	July 11	1st	3.7
*1565	♂	July 31	*k*	7.6	11.6	7.4	July 22	1st	6.7
1568	--	July 24	*d*	6.9	12.1	6.8	July 10	1st	5.6
*1569	--	July 28	*c*	4.5	7.8	4.3	July 14	1st	3.5
*1572	--	[49]July 30	*c*	4.8	8.6	[50]4.1	July 14	1st	3.8
1573	--	July 28	*d*	4.7	7.6	4.2	July 10	1st	3.2
1575	♂	July 23	*c*	3.9	6.6	*b*	July 11	1st	3.2
*1577	♂	July 26	*c*	3.8	6.4	3.6	July 14	[51]1st	3.1
1578	--	July 31	*k*	4.3	8.8	4.0	July 13	1st	3.0
1580	♂	July 25	*c*	3.9	6.7	3.7	July 13	1st	3.1
1581	--	July 31	*k*	4.3	8.7	3.9	July 11	1st	2.6
1585	♂	July 22	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 12	*o*	7.0
1586	--	July 15	*d*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 14	*o*	*b*
1587	--	July 24	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 11	1st	3.0
*1588	♂	[52]July 26	*c*	6.2	11.4	6.4	July 13	1st	5.3
1589	♂	July 31	*k*	4.4	9.0	4.1	July 9	1st	2.7
1590	♂	July 31	*k*	4.6	9.2	4.1	July 9	*o*	4.1
*1591	♂	July 23	*c*	7.3	13.4	7.5	July 11	1st	6.5
*1592	♂	July 17	*c*	5.0	9.0	4.5	July 7	1st	4.4
1593	♂	July 29	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 14	*o*	7.6
1594	--	July 22	*c*	3.9	6.8	*b*	July 10	1st	3.1
1595	--	July 31	*k*	6.4	11.7	6.5	July 12	1st	4.7
1596	--	July 21	*c*	4.9	8.8	4.8	July 8	1st	4.0
1597	♂	July 24	*c*	7.2	13.1	7.5	July 12	*o*	7.6
*1598	♂	July 21	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 6	1st	4.5
*1599	♂	July 15	*c*	3.5	5.1	*b*	July 5	1st	2.6
*1601	♂	July 16	*c*	4.7	9.7	*b*	July 5	1st	3.6
1602	♂	July 31	*k*	4.7	9.9	4.4	July 12	*o*	4.5
1603	♂	July 31	*k*	6.2	11.0	6.0	July 29	1st	4.9
1605	♂	July 15	*d*	6.5	11.8	6.2	July 14	1st	4.6
1606	♂	July 23	*d*	5.0	8.7	4.9	July 15	1st	3.9
1607	♂	July 25	*c*	6.8	13.0	7.0	July 13	*o*	7.0
*1608	♂	July 31	*k*	6.6	12.1	6.6	July 13	2d	5.5
*1609	♂	July 31	*k*	6.4	11.7	6.5	July 31	[53]*k*	5.7
1610	♂	July 31	*c*	6.4	11.6	6.0	July 19	1st	4.5
1612	♂	July 31	*k*	5.7	10.2	5.8	July 22	1st	*b*
*1614	--	July 31	*k*	4.2	8.6	4.0	July 14	1st	2.9
1616	♂	July 21	*c*	7.2	12.9	7.2	July 9	1st	6.6
*1617	♂	July 15	*d*	5.7	[54]9.1	5.7	July 13	1st	4.1

[46] 1541. Died in molting.
[47] 1545. Lost in molting.
[48] 1563. Lost in molting.
[49] 1572. Died in molting.
[50] 1572. Deformed.
[51] 1577. Plane of removal not at breaking joint.
[52] 1588. Left chela lost in molting.
[53] 1609. July 20, right chela slightly smaller than left; July 27, both chelæ present.
[54] 1617. Approximate value.

TABLE 1.—*Table of data*—Continued.

Catalog No.	Sex.	Second molt.							
		Date.	Desc.	Cephalo-thorax.		Left chela.	Right chela.		
				Lg.	Width.		Date.	Desc.	Lg.
*1618	--	July 26	*c*	6.7	*b*	*b*	July 15	[55]1st	4.4
*1619	--	July 20	*c*	7.0	12.2	*b*	July 6	1st	6.0
*1620	♂	July 23	*c*	3.8	6.3	3.4	[56]July 9	1st	2.8
*1621	♂	July 31	*k*	4.9	8.4	4.4	July 15	*o*	*b*
*1624	--	July 12	*d*	4.2	8.4	3.7	July 11	1st	3.8
1626	♂	July 18	*d*	4.0	8.0	3.5	July 13	*o*	3.8
1627	♂	July 29	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 18	1st	5.3
*1628	♂	July 31	*k*	7.1	12.9	7.1	July 19	[57]1st	*b*
*1629	♂	July 24	*c*	6.2	11.3	6.2	July 11	*o*	6.4
1632	♂	July 22	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 13	*o*	6.9
*1633	--	July 15	*c*	4.7	9.6	4.4	July 4	1st	3.8
1634	♂	July 22	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 10	*o*	6.1
*1635	--	[58]July 12	*d*	4.6	9.5	4.3	July 12	1st	3.1
*1636	♂	July 25	*c*	8.7	16.1	8.7	July 13	*o*	8.8
*1637	♂	July 27	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 12	*o*	6.0
*1639	--	July 28	*d*	4.0	8.4	3.9	July 28	*d*	3.0
*1640	♂	July 19	*c*	*b*	*b*	9.0	July 3	1st	7.1
1641	--	July 31	*k*	6.3	11.2	6.1	July 9	*o*	6.0
*1642	--	July 30	*d*	8.0	14.6	8.4	[59]July 14	1st	*b*
*1731	--	July 24	*c*	6.9	12.9	7.3	July 13	1st	6.1
1732	--	July 31	*k*	4.8	8.3	4.6	July 15	1st	3.8
1733	--	July 31	*k*	5.8	10.0	5.8	July 25	1st	4.0

Catalog No.	Sex.	Third molt.							
		Date.	Desc.	Cephalo-thorax.		Left chela.	Right chela.		
				Lg.	Width.		Date.	Desc.	Lg.
1397	♂	July 31	*k*	5.5	9.8	5.2	July 22	1st	3.3
*1398	♂	July 31	*k*	5.2	8.7	4.6	July 22	3d	3.0
*1400	♂	July 31	*k*	8.6	16.1	8.8	July 21	1st	[60]*b*
1406	♂	July 31	*k*	7.3	13.3	7.4	July 23	2d	5.4
*1407	♂	July 31	*k*	9.8	17.6	10.0	July 25	2d	[61]*b*
1408	--	July 31	*k*	8.0	14.8	8.0	July 12	2d	6.1
*1409	♂	July 31	*k*	10.2	19.1	10.6	July 24	1st	8.6
1410	♂	July 31	*k*	10.0	18.4	9.9	July 28	3d	8.9
1411	♂	July 31	*k*	9.7	18.6	10.1	July 31	2d	7.7
1413	♂	July 31	*k*	10.4	18.9	10.9	July 28	2d	8.8
1414	♂	July 31	*k*	10.0	18.4	9.6	July 30	1st	7.2
*1415	♂	July 31	*k*	9.9	18.0	10.9	July 21	2d	*b*
*1416	♂	July 31	*k*	11.3	21.1	11.8	July 29	[62]1st	*b*
1418	♂	July 31	*k*	11.8	22.1	12.5	July 29	[63]2d	10.0
1419	♂	July 31	*k*	9.9	17.7	10.7	July 25	2d	8.9
*1420	♂	July 31	*k*	14.5	27.7	16.9	July 30	1st	14.4
1422	♂	July 31	*k*	10.2	19.1	10.8	July 24	2d	8.5
*1426	♂	July 31	*k*	13.1	24.7	13.5	July 25	2d	11.4
1514	--	July 31	*k*	5.4	9.2	5.2	July 25	2d	3.7
*1518	♂	July 31	*k*	5.0	10.6	4.8	July 26	2d	3.6
*1522	♂	July 31	*k*	7.3	12.8	7.2	July 25	[64]2d	4.1
1523	♂	July 31	*k*	6.8	12.1	6.9	July 22	2d	6.2
1524	♂	July 31	*k*	10.2	18.5	10.9	July 23	2d	8.9

[55] 1618. Injured.
[56] 1620. Not of same species as majority; July 9, plane of removal not at breaking joint.
[57] 1628. Lost in molting.
[58] 1635. Died in molting.
[59] 1642. Lost in molting.
[60] 1400. Right chela lost in molting.
[61] 1407. Probably lost in molting.
[62] 1416. Lost in molting.
[63] 1418. (?)
[64] 1522. Deformed.

TABLE I.—*Table of data*—Continued.

Catalog No.	Sex.	Third molt.							
		Date.	Desc.	Cephalo-thorax.		Left chela.	Right chela.		
				Lg.	Width.		Date.	Desc.	Lg.
1526	♂	July 31	*k*	8.9	16.5	9.0	July 27	2d	7.2
1528	♂	July 31	*k*	11.0	20.1	11.8	July 22	1st	9.5
1529	--	July 31	*k*	8.6	16.4	9.3	July 29	2d	7.3
1532	--	July 31	*k*	7.0	12.4	7.0	July 25	2d	5.5
*1534	♂	July 30	*d*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 23	[65]1st	*b*
*1545	♂	July 31	*k*	4.8	9.7	4.5	July 29	2d	3.0
1554	--	July 31	*k*	5.9	10.8	6.1	July 26	2d	4.4
1561	♂	July 31	*k*	10.2	17.7	10.3	July 24	2d	8.2
*1569	--	July 30	*d*	4.6	8.2	4.5	July 29	[66]2d	(66)
1575	♂	July 31	*k*	4.5	7.8	4.4	July 24	2d	3.6
*1577	♂	July 28	*d*	4.2	7.3	4.3	July 27	[67]2d	3.0
1580	♂	July 31	*k*	4.4	8.1	4.4	July 26	2d	3.8
1585	♂	July 31	*k*	8.0	14.8	8.1	July 23	1st	6.8
1587	♂	July 31	*k*	4.4	7.9	4.3	July 25	2d	3.3
*1588	♂	July 31	*k*	6.9	12.5	[68]*b*	July 27	2d	5.2
*1591	♂	July 31	*k*	8.3	15.3	8.6	July 24	[69]2d	6.9
1592	♂	July 29	*c*	*b*	*b*	*b*	July 18	2d	4.0
1593	♂	July 31	*k*	8.4	15.2	8.8	July 30	1st	6.9
1594	--	July 31	*k*	4.4	7.8	4.1	July 23	2d	3.1
1596	--	July 31	*k*	5.5	9.9	5.5	July 22	2d	3.9
1597	♂	July 31	*k*	8.3	15.4	8.8	July 25	1st	7.6
*1598	♂	July 31	*k*	5.8	10.3	5.7	July 22	[70]2d	*b*
*1599	♂	July 31	*c*	4.0	6.1	3.3	July 16	2d	2.7
*1601	♂	July 31	*k*	5.4	9.0	5.1	July 17	[71]2d	3.2
1607	♂	July 31	*k*	8.3	15.2	8.3	July 26	1st	7.3
1610	♂	July 31	*k*	7.1	13.2	7.1	July 31	2d	5.5
1616	♂	July 31	*k*	8.1	15.1	8.5	July 22	2d	7.0
*1618	--	July 29	*d*	8.3	*b*	8.7	July 27	[72]2d	5.7
*1619	--	July 31	*k*	8.3	14.5	8.3	July 20	2d	*b*
*1620	♂	July 31	*k*	4.4	7.6	4.0	July 24	2d	3.4
1627	♂	July 31	*k*	7.3	13.8	7.7	July 30	2d	6.4
*1629	♂	July 31	*k*	7.0	12.8	7.0	July 25	[73]1st	3.9
1632	♂	July 31	*k*	7.8	14.6	8.2	July 23	1st	6.6
*1633	--	July 17	*d*	5.3	10.8	5.2	July 16	[74]2d	3.8
1634	♂	July 31	*k*	6.9	12.6	6.4	July 23	1st	5.2
*1636	♂	July 31	*k*	10.0	18.9	10.5	July 26	[75]1st	7.9
1637	♂	July 31	*k*	6.8	12.2	6.6	July 28	[76]1st	4.2
*1640	♂	July 31	*k*	9.7	17.7	10.4	July 20	2d	7.1
*1731	--	July 31	*k*	8.0	14.4	8.3	July 25	[77]2d	5.0

[65] 1534. Lost in molting.
[66] 1569. Deformed.
[67] 1577. Deformed.
[68] 1588. Left chela lost in molting.
[69] 1591. Curved.
[70] 1598. Lost in molting.
[71] 1601. Deformed.
[72] 1618. Deformed.
[73] 1629. Chela very stout.
[74] 1633. Curved.
[75] 1636. Deformed.
[76] 1637. Deformed.
[77] 1731. Deformed.

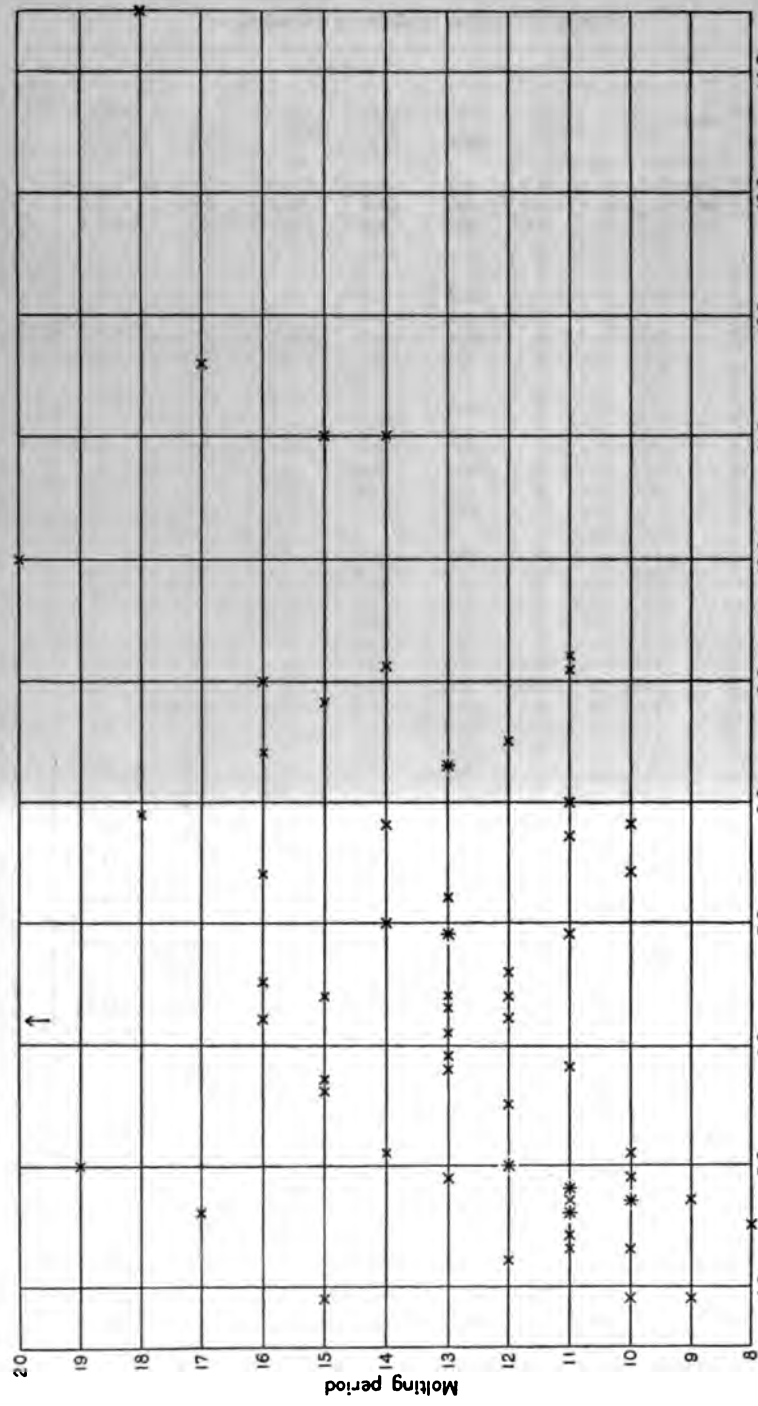


TABLE 2.—Correlation between cephalo-thoracic length and molting period (first regeneration period). * Superposition of two cases.

TABLE 3.—*Correlation between cephalo-thoracic length and molting period (first regeneration period).*

[Data arranged in order of length of molting period.]

Catalog No.	Molting period.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Catalog No.	Molting period.	Cephalo thoracic length.	Catalog No.	Molting period.	Cephalo-thoracic length.
1569	8	4.5	1422	11	9.1	1629	14	7.0
1575	9	3.9	1524	11	9.2	1526	14	7.8
1633	9	4.7	1516	12	4.2	1419	14	9.1
1580	10	3.9	1540	12	5.0	1528	14	11.0
1581	10	4.3	1606	12	5.0	1594	15	3.9
1564	10	4.7	1397	12	5.5	1512	15	5.6
1601	10	4.7	1588	12	6.2	1617	15	5.7
1536	10	4.9	1595	12	6.4	1610	15	6.4
1554	10	5.1	1401	12	6.6	1561	15	8.8
1405	10	7.4	1525	12	8.5	1423	15	11.0
1632	10	7.8	1596	13	4.9	1603	16	6.2
1578	11	4.3	1733	13	5.8	1605	16	6.5
1589	11	4.4	1544	13	5.9	1591	16	7.3
1514	11	4.6	1562	13	6.1	1593	16	8.4
1531	11	4.6	1532	13	6.3	1412	16	9.0
1573	11	4.7	1541	13	6.4	1635	17	4.6
1572	11	4.8	1568	13	6.9	1421	17	11.6
1732	11	4.8	1634	13	6.9	1551	18	7.9
1535	11	5.8	1616	13	7.2	1420	18	14.5
1731	11	6.9	1597	13	8.3	1530	19	5.0
1529	11	7.7	1607	13	8.3	1414	20	10.0
1585	11	8.0	1517	14	5.1	1523	25	6.2

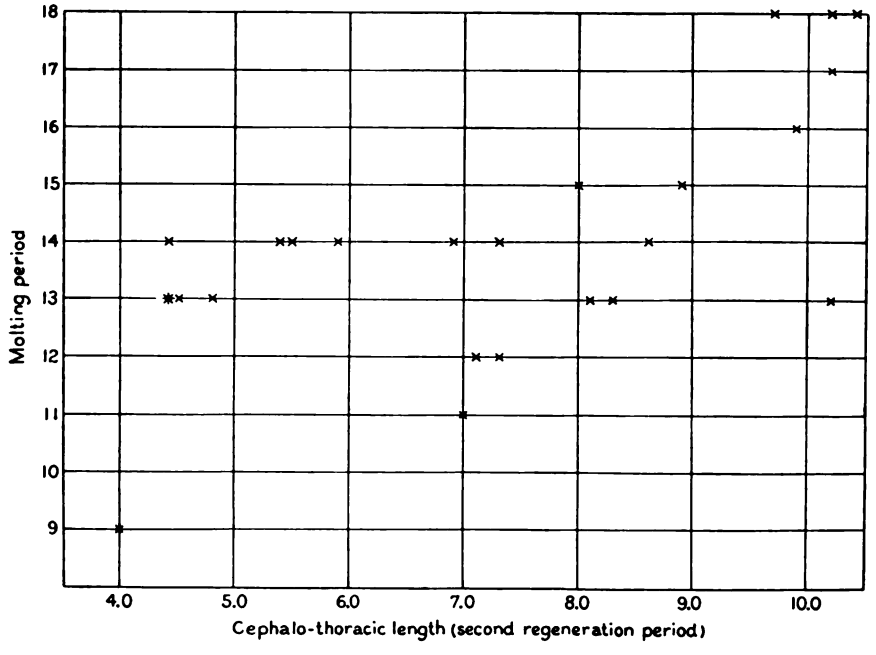


TABLE 4.—Correlation between cephalo-thoracic length and molting period (second regeneration period). * Superposition of two cases.

TABLE 5.—*Correlation between cephalo-thoracic length and molting period (second regeneration period).*

[Data arranged in order of length of molting period.]

Catalog No.	Molting period.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Catalog No.	Molting period.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Catalog No.	Molting period.	Cephalo-thoracic length.
1394	9	4.0	1591	13	8.3	1408	15	8.0
1532	11	7.0	1561	13	10.2	1526	15	8.9
1610	12	7.1	1587	14	4.4	1419	16	9.9
1627	12	7.3	1514	14	5.4	1524	17	10.2
1580	13	4.4	1596	14	5.5	1411	18	9.7
1594	13	4.4	1554	14	5.9	1422	18	10.2
1575	13	4.5	1588	14	6.9	1413	18	10.4
1545	13	4.8	1406	14	7.3			
1616	13	8.1	1529	14	8.6			

TABLE 6.—*Correlation between molting period and amount of first regeneration.*

[Data arranged in order of length of molting period.]

Catalog No.	Molting period.	Right chela, first regenera-tion.	Catalog No.	Molting period.	Right chela, first regenera-tion.	Catalog No.	Molting period.	Right chela, first regenera-tion.
1569	8	3.5	1585	11	6.8	1629	14	3.9
1587	9	3.0	1422	11	8.2	1526	14	6.2
1575	9	3.2	1524	11	8.4	1419	14	8.3
1633	9	3.8	1516	12	2.9	1528	14	9.5
1581	10	2.6	1397	12	3.3	1594	15	3.1
1580	10	3.1	1540	12	3.8	1512	15	3.9
1601	10	3.6	1606	12	3.9	1617	15	4.1
1564	10	3.7	1595	12	4.7	1610	15	4.5
1536	10	3.9	1401	12	5.0	1561	15	8.3
1554	10	4.0	1588	12	5.3	1423	15	9.4
1598	10	4.5	1525	12	6.8	1605	16	4.6
1405	10	6.1	1596	13	4.0	1603	16	4.9
1632	10	6.6	1733	13	4.0	1412	16	6.0
1589	11	2.7	1544	13	4.2	1591	16	6.5
1578	11	3.0	1532	13	5.2	1593	16	6.9
1573	11	3.2	1562	13	5.2	1411	16	7.6
1514	11	3.6	1634	13	5.2	1635	17	3.1
1531	11	3.8	1541	13	5.5	1421	17	10.3
1572	11	3.8	1568	13	5.6	1551	18	6.6
1732	11	3.8	1520	13	5.9	1420	18	14.4
1535	11	4.4	1616	13	6.6	1530	19	4.0
1627	11	5.3	1607	13	7.3	1414	20	7.2
1731	11	6.1	1597	13	7.6	1523	25	5.4
1529	11	6.7	1517	14	3.8			

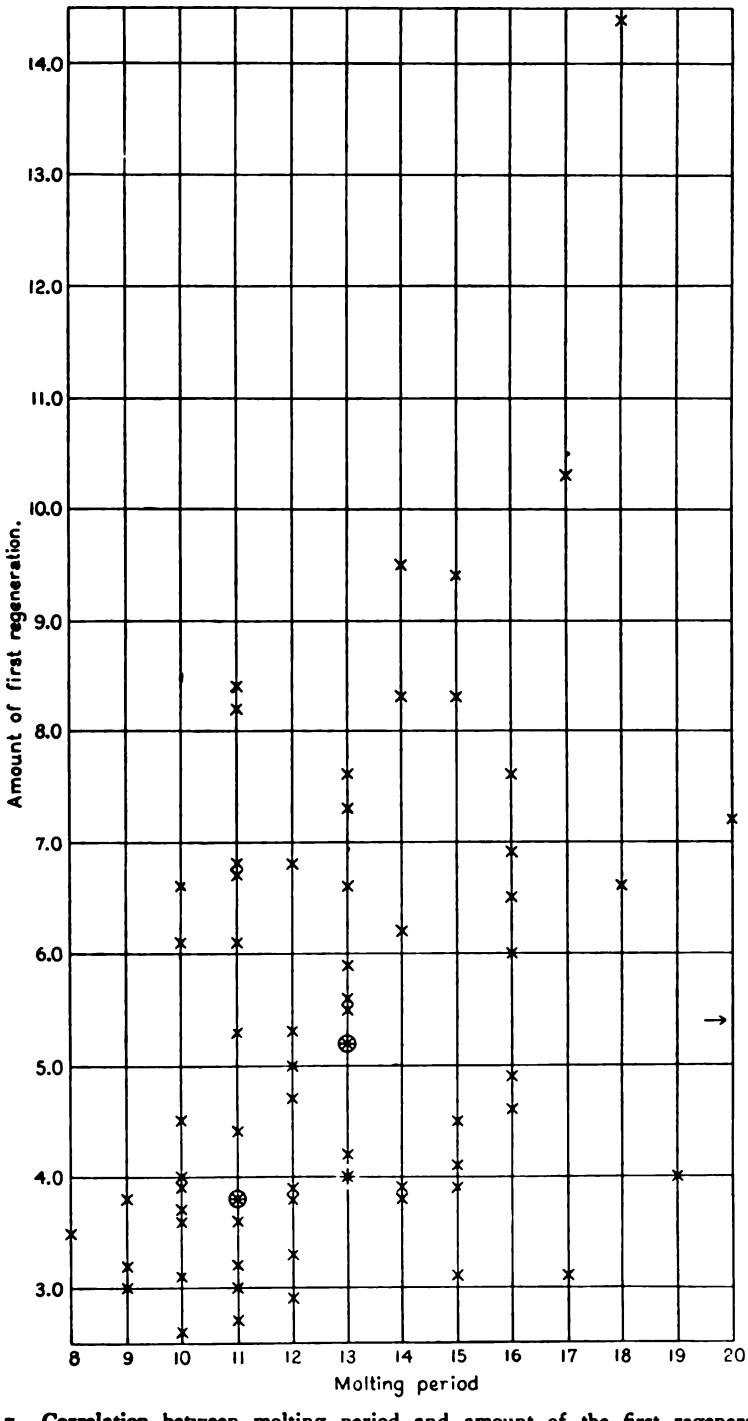


TABLE 7.—Correlation between molting period and amount of the first regeneration of the right chela. * Superposition of two cases; ⊗ Superposition of three cases.

TABLE 8.—*Correlation between molting period and amount of second regeneration.*

[Data arranged in order of length of molting period.]

Catalog No.	Molting period.	Right chela, second regeneration.	Catalog No.	Molting period.	Right chela, second regeneration.	Catalog No.	Molting period.	Right chela, second regeneration.
1394	9	3.0	1616	13	7.0	1529	14	7.3
1532	11	5.5	1561	13	8.2	1408	15	6.1
1610	12	5.5	1587	14	3.3	1526	15	7.2
1627	12	6.4	1514	14	3.7	1419	16	8.9
1545	13	3.0	1596	14	3.9	1524	17	8.9
1594	13	3.1	1554	14	4.4	1411	18	7.7
1575	13	3.6	1588	14	5.2	1422	18	8.5
1580	13	3.8	1506	14	5.4	1413	18	8.8
1591	13	6.9	1410	14	7.3			

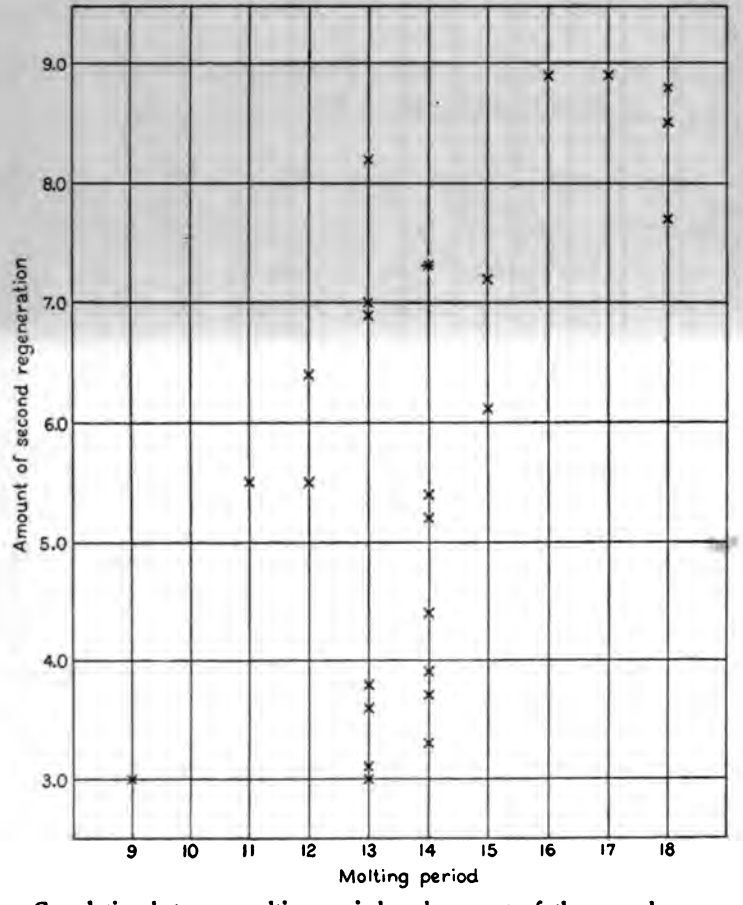


TABLE 9.—Correlation between molting period and amount of the second regeneration of the right chela. * Superposition of two cases.

TABLE 10.—*Correlation between the cephalo-thoracic length and the amount of the first and second regenerations of the right chela.*

[The specific amount of regeneration is the length of the regenerated chela divided by the cephalo-thoracic length.]

First regeneration				Second regeneration.			
Catalog No.	Specific amount.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Right chela, first regenera-tion.	Right chela, second regenera-tion.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Specific amount.	Catalog No.
1580	0.795	3.9	3.1				
1594	.795	3.9	3.1				
1575	.821	3.9	3.2	3.0	4.0	0.750	1394
1516	.690	4.2	2.9				
1581	.605	4.3	2.6				
1578	.698	4.3	3.0	3.1	4.4	.705	1594
1589	.614	4.4	2.7	3.3	4.4	.750	1587
1569	.778	4.5	3.5	3.8	4.4	.864	1580
1635	.674	4.6	3.1	3.6	4.5	.800	1575
1514	.783	4.6	3.6				
1531	.826	4.6	3.8				
1573	.681	4.7	3.2				
1601	.766	4.7	3.6				
1564	.787	4.7	3.7				
1633	.809	4.7	3.8				
1572	.792	4.8	3.8	3.0	4.8	.625	1545
1732	.792	4.8	3.8				
1536	.796	4.9	3.9				
1596	.816	4.9	4.0				
1540	.760	5.0	3.8				
1606	.780	5.0	3.9				
1530	.800	5.0	4.0				
1517	.745	5.1	3.8				
1554	.784	5.1	4.0	3.7	5.4	.685	1514
1397	.600	5.5	3.3	3.9	5.5	.709	1596
1512	.696	5.6	3.9				
1617	.719	5.7	4.1				
1733	.690	5.8	4.0				
1535	.759	5.8	4.4				
1544	.712	5.9	4.2	4.4	5.9	.746	1554
1562	.852	6.1	5.2				
1603	.790	6.2	4.9				
1588	.855	6.2	5.3				
1523	.871	6.2	5.4				
1532	.825	6.3	5.2				
1610	.703	6.4	4.5				
1595	.734	6.4	4.7				
1541	.859	6.4	5.5				
1605	.708	6.5	4.6				
1401	.758	6.6	5.0				
1634	.754	6.9	5.2				
1568	.812	6.9	5.6	5.2	6.9	.754	1588
1731	.884	6.9	6.1				
1629	.557	7.0	3.9	5.5	7.0	.786	1532
1616	.917	7.2	6.6	5.5	7.1	.775	1610
1591	.890	7.3	6.5	5.4	7.3	.740	1406
1405	.824	7.4	6.1	6.4	7.3	.877	1627
1529	.870	7.7	6.7				
1526	.795	7.8	6.2				
1632	.846	7.8	6.6				
1551	.835	7.9	6.6				

TABLE 10.—*Correlation between the cephalo-thoracic length and the amount of the first and second regenerations of the right chela*—Continued.

First regeneration.				Second regeneration.			
Catalog No.	Specific amount.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Right chela, first regenera-tion.	Right chela, second regenera-tion.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Specific amount.	Catalog No.
1585	.850	8.0	6.8	6.1	8.0	.762	1408
1607	.880	8.3	7.3	7.0	8.1	.864	1616
1597	.916	8.3	7.6	6.9	8.3	.831	1591
1593	.821	8.4	6.9				
1525	.800	8.5	6.8	7.3	8.6	.849	1529
1561	.943	8.8	8.3	7.2	8.9	.809	1526
1412	.667	9.0	6.0				
1422	.901	9.1	8.2	7.7	9.7	.794	1411
1419	.912	9.1	8.3	8.9	9.9	.899	1419
1524	.913	9.2	8.4	8.2	10.2	.804	1561
1414	.720	10.0	7.2	8.5	10.2	.833	1422
1423	.855	11.0	9.4	8.9	10.2	.873	1524
1528	.864	11.0	9.5	8.8	10.4	.846	1413
1421	.888	11.6	10.3				
1420	.993	14.5	14.4				

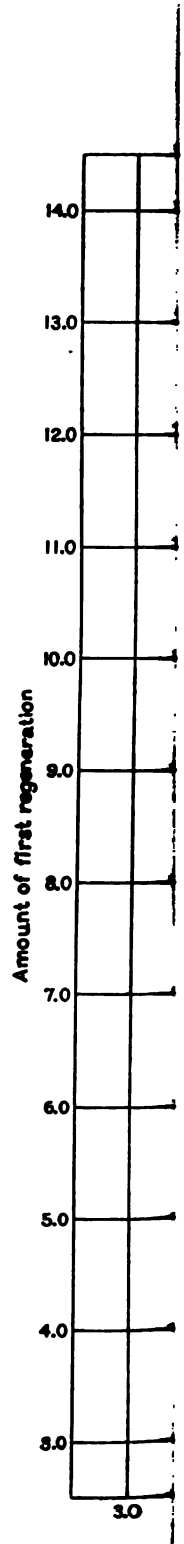


TABLE XIA.—C
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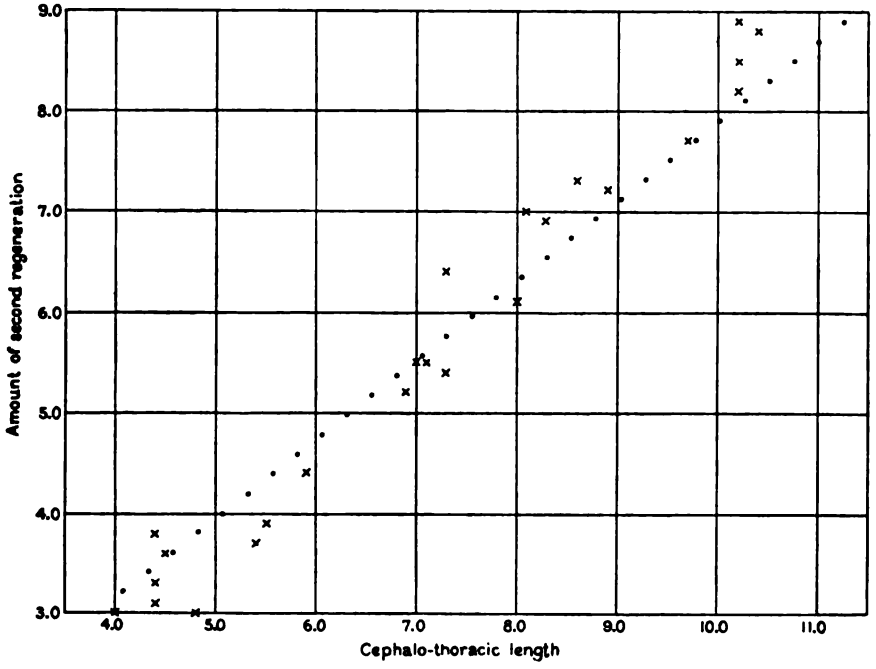

TABLE 12.—Correlation between cephalo-thoracic length and amount of second regeneration of right chela. *Dotted line,* line along which all the data would be arranged if specific amount of regeneration were the same for individuals of all sizes.

TABLE 13.—*Comparisons of the first, second, and third regenerations in single individuals.*

[Data arranged in order of original length of the removed chela.]

Catalog No.	Original length.	First regeneration.	Second regeneration.	Third regeneration.	Catalog No.	Original length.	First regeneration.	Second regeneration.	Third regeneration.
1599	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.9	1588	5.6	5.3	5.2	
1575	2.9	3.2	3.6		1610	5.8	4.5	5.5	
1587	3.0	3.0	3.3		1616	6.1	6.6	7.0	
1594	3.1	3.1	3.1		1410	6.5	(*)	7.3	8.9
1580	3.2	3.1	3.8		1591	6.7	6.5	6.9	
1514	3.8	3.6	3.7		1526	7.0	6.2	7.2	
1596	4.2	4.0	3.9		1529	7.0	6.7	7.3	
1523	4.3	5.4	6.2		1561	7.8	8.3	8.2	
1554	4.4	4.0	4.4		1411	8.5	7.6	7.7	
1627	5.5	5.3	6.4		1524	8.6	8.4	8.9	
1532	5.6	5.2	5.5						

* First regeneration record missing.

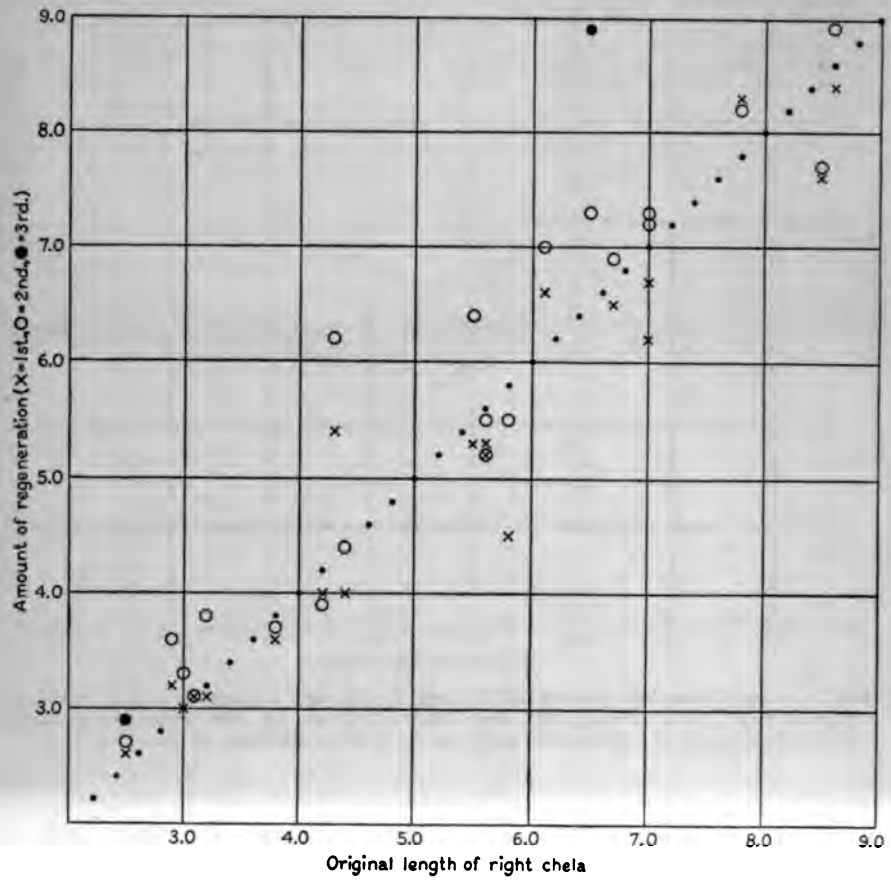

TABLE 14.—Comparisons of first, second, and third regenerations of right chela in single individuals and their correlation with original chela-lengths. *Dotted line,* line along which all the data would be arranged if regenerated chela-lengths were equal to original chela-lengths. × first regeneration; ⊙ second regeneration; ⊗ third regeneration.

TABLE 15.—*Correlation between the left and right chelæ and the cephalo-thoracic length in unoperated individuals.*

[Data arranged in order of cephalo-thoracic length. Asterisks (*) indicate individuals without catalog numbers, collected especially for these measurements. All of these starred cases, with one exception (* ♀), were males.]

Catalog No.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Left chela length.	Right chela length.	Ratio of left chela to cephalo-thoracic length.	Catalog No.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Left chela length.	Right chela length.	Ratio of left chela to cephalo-thoracic length.
1625	3.0	2.7	2.7	0.900	(*)	4.5	4.4	4.5	.978
1530	3.1	2.8	2.8	.903	(*)	4.5	4.5	4.5	1.000
1590	3.1	2.8	2.9	.903	1606	4.5	4.8	4.2	1.067
1578	3.2	2.9	2.8	.906	1590	4.6	4.1	4.1	.891
1594	3.2	3.2	3.1	1.000	1533	4.6	4.3	4.4	.935
1587	3.3	3.0	3.0	.909	1605	4.6	4.3	4.4	.935
1592	3.3	3.1	3.1	.939	1539	4.6	4.4	4.4	.957
(*)	3.4	3.0	3.1	.882	1552	4.6	4.4	4.4	.957
(*)	3.4	3.0	3.1	.882	1617	4.6	4.4	4.4	.957
1580	3.4	3.1	3.2	.912	1513	4.7	4.4	4.5	.936
1622	3.4	3.1	2.7	.912	1602	4.7	4.4	4.5	.936
1613	3.5	2.7	3.3	.771	1627	4.7	4.4	4.6	.936
(*)	3.5	3.0	3.1	.857	1570	4.7	4.5	4.6	.957
(*)	3.5	3.1	3.2	.886	1597	4.7	4.7	4.7	1.000
1556	3.5	3.2	3.3	.914	1510	4.8	4.4	4.5	.917
1557	3.5	3.2	3.2	.914	1402	4.8	4.7	4.8	.979
1394	3.5	3.3	3.3	.943	(*)	4.8	4.7	4.6	.979
1543	3.5	3.3	3.4	.943	1591	4.8	5.0	5.0	1.042
1548	3.6	3.2	3.4	.889	1630	4.9	4.3	4.4	.878
1564	3.6	3.2	3.2	.889	1603	4.9	4.9	4.9	1.000
1576	3.6	3.2	3.2	.889	1555	5.0	4.7	4.9	.940
1581	3.6	3.2	3.4	.889	1544	5.1	4.8	5.0	.941
1623	3.6	3.3	3.4	.917	1628	5.1	5.2	5.2	1.020
1545	3.6	3.5	3.5	.972	1733	5.1	5.4	5.5	1.059
1578	3.7	3.5	3.5	.946	1631	5.2	4.7	4.8	.904
1516	3.8	3.5	3.5	.921	1552	5.2	5.0	5.1	.962
1586	3.8	3.5	3.5	.921	1617	5.2	5.0	5.3	.962
1635	3.9	3.7	3.8	.949	1629	5.2	5.2	5.3	1.000
1399	3.9	3.8	3.9	.974	1535	5.3	5.2	5.4	.982
1573	3.9	3.8	3.8	.974	1541	5.4	5.2	5.5	.963
1626	4.0	3.5	3.8	.875	1521	5.4	5.3	5.6	.981
1633	4.0	3.7	3.6	.925	1588	5.4	5.5	5.6	1.019
1533	4.0	3.8	3.9	.950	1558	5.5	5.6	5.6	1.018
1601	4.0	3.8	3.8	.950	(*)	5.6	5.5	5.6	.982
1630	4.0	3.8	3.8	.950	1542	5.6	5.6	5.7	1.000
1514	4.1	3.7	3.8	.902	1406	5.6	5.8	5.8	1.036
1602	4.1	3.7	3.7	.902	1595	5.6	5.9	6.0	1.054
1549	4.1	3.8	3.9	.927	1546	5.7	5.7	5.8	1.000
1519	4.1	3.9	4.1	.951	1522	5.7	5.8	6.0	1.018
1510	4.2	3.9	3.9	.929	1605	5.7	5.8	5.8	1.018
1515	4.2	4.0	3.9	.952	1604	5.7	5.8	5.3	1.018
1571	4.2	4.1	4.1	.976	1568	5.7	5.9	6.0	1.035
1564	4.2	4.4	4.2	1.048	(*)	5.8	5.5	5.6	.948
1396	4.3	4.0	4.0	.930	1603	5.8	5.8	5.4	1.000
1536	4.3	4.0	4.2	.930	1404	5.9	5.8	5.8	.983
1397	4.3	4.1	4.1	.953	1579	5.9	5.8	5.9	.983
1596	4.3	4.1	4.2	.953	1636	5.9	5.8	5.9	.983
1508	4.3	4.2	4.4	.977	1585	5.9	5.9	5.9	1.000
1557	4.4	4.0	3.5	.909	1607	5.9	5.9	5.9	1.000
1584	4.4	4.1	4.2	.932	1566	5.9	6.1	6.3	1.034
1638	4.5	3.6	4.2	.800	(*)	6.0	6.0	6.1	1.000
1399	4.5	4.1	4.1	.911	1422	6.0	6.1	6.1	1.017
1583	4.5	4.3	4.4	.956	1560	6.1	6.1	6.2	1.000

TABLE 15.—*Correlation between the left and right chelæ and the cephalo-thoracic length in unoperated individuals*—Continued.

Catalog No.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Left chela-length.	Right chela-length.	Ratio of left chela to cephalo-thoracic length.	Catalog No.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Left chela-length.	Right chela-length.	Ratio of left chela to cephalo-thoracic length.
1561	6.1	6.3	6.2	1.033	1561	7.3	7.7	7.8	1.055
1537	6.1	6.4	6.4	1.049	1407	7.3	7.9	7.4	1.082
1538	6.2	6.1	6.3	.984	1419	7.4	8.3	8.4	1.122
1629	6.2	6.2	6.4	1.000	(*)	7.7	7.7	7.8	1.000
1405	6.2	6.3	6.3	1.016	1413	7.8	8.2	8.3	1.051
1559	6.2	6.3	6.3	1.016	1409	7.9	8.1	8.4	1.025
1600	6.2	6.6	6.8	1.065	1411	7.9	8.1	8.5	1.025
(*)	6.3	6.1	6.3	.968	1422	7.9	8.2	8.6	1.038
1597	6.3	6.3	6.4	1.000	(*)	8.0	8.4	8.5	1.050
(*)	6.3	6.3	6.3	1.000	(*)	8.0	8.5	8.7	1.062
(*)	6.3	6.4	6.5	1.016	1412	8.0	8.7	8.8	1.087
1618	6.4	5.8	5.5	.906	1416	8.2	8.2	8.5	1.000
1565	6.4	6.1	5.9	.953	(*)	8.6	8.9	9.1	1.035
1591	6.4	6.5	6.7	1.016	1420	8.6	9.4	9.4	1.093
(*)	6.5	6.7	6.7	1.031	1636	8.7	8.7	8.8	1.000
1551	6.5	7.3	6.8	1.123	1409	9.1	9.6	9.6	1.055
(*)	6.6	6.5	6.7	.985	1414	9.2	9.2	9.4	1.000
1529	6.6	6.8	7.0	1.030	(*)	9.5	9.7	8.9	1.021
1404	6.7	6.5	6.7	.970	1528	9.6	10.1	10.1	1.052
1584	6.7	6.7	5.0	1.000	1423	9.7	9.8	10.0	1.010
1520	6.7	6.9	6.3	1.030	1421	10.1	9.6	10.7	.950
1607	6.8	7.0	7.0	1.029	(*)	10.1	10.0	10.7	.990
1526	6.9	6.8	7.0	.986	1417	11.0	12.1	12.3	1.100
1563	6.9	6.9	7.1	1.000	1424	11.2	12.3	12.3	1.098
1597	7.2	7.5	7.6	1.042	(*)	11.2	12.8	13.0	1.143
1642	7.2	7.5	7.5	1.042	1425	12.4	14.5	14.5	1.169
1525	7.3	7.3	7.4	1.000	1420	12.7	14.3	14.6	1.126
1566	7.3	7.4	7.6	1.014	1428	14.4	17.0	17.3	1.181
(*)	7.3	7.4	7.6	1.014	(*♀)	15.0	16.1	16.5	1.073
1400	7.3	7.7	7.8	1.055	Av.	5.77	5.77	5.84	.982

TABLE 16.—*Correlation between the left and right chelæ and cephalo-thoracic length in first regeneration cases.*

[Data arranged in order of cephalo-thoracic length.]

Catalog No.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Left chela-length.	Right chela, first regenera-tion.	Ratio of left chela to cephalo-thoracic length.	Catalog No.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Left chela-length.	Right chela, first regenera-tion.	Ratio of left chela to cephalo-thoracic length.
1577	3.8	3.6	3.1	0.947	1564	4.7	4.5	3.7	.957
1580	3.9	3.7	3.1	.949	1732	4.8	4.6	3.8	.958
1624	4.2	3.7	3.8	.881	1536	4.9	4.7	3.9	.959
1516	4.2	3.8	2.9	.905	1596	4.9	4.8	4.0	.980
1545	4.2	4.0	(?)	.952	1592	5.0	4.5	4.4	.900
1581	4.3	3.9	2.6	.907	1530	5.0	4.6	4.0	.920
1578	4.3	4.0	3.0	.930	1606	5.0	4.9	3.9	.980
1589	4.4	4.1	2.7	.932	1540	5.0	5.1	3.8	1.020
1569	4.5	4.3	3.5	.956	1554	5.1	4.9	4.0	.961
1635	4.6	4.3	3.1	.935	1517	5.1	5.0	3.8	.980
1514	4.6	4.4	3.6	.957	1397	5.5	5.2	3.3	.945
1531	4.6	4.4	3.8	.957	1512	5.6	5.5	3.9	.982
1573	4.7	4.2	3.2	.894	1617	5.7	5.7	4.1	1.000
1633	4.7	4.4	3.8	.936	1612	5.7	5.8	(?)	1.018

TABLE 16.—*Correlation between the left and right chelæ and cephalo-thoracic length in first regeneration cases*—Continued.

Catalog No.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Left chela-length.	Right chela, first regenera-tion.	Ratio of left chela to cephalo-thoracic length.	Catalog No.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Left chela-length.	Right chela, first regenera-tion.	Ratio of left chela to cephalo-thoracic length.
1535	5.8	5.8	4.4	1.000	1520	7.7	8.3	6.7	1.078
1733	5.8	5.8	4.0	1.000	1526	7.8	7.6	6.2	.974
1544	5.9	5.8	4.2	.983	1632	7.8	8.2	6.6	1.051
1521	6.1	6.1	(*)	1.000	1551	7.9	8.1	6.6	1.025
1562	6.1	6.3	5.2	1.033	1585	8.0	8.1	6.8	1.012
1603	6.2	6.0	4.9	.968	1642	8.0	8.4	(?)	1.050
1523	6.2	6.2	5.4	1.000	1607	8.3	8.3	7.3	1.000
1588	6.2	6.4	5.3	1.032	1597	8.3	8.8	7.6	1.060
1532	6.3	6.3	5.2	1.000	1593	8.4	8.8	6.9	1.048
1610	6.4	6.0	4.5	.937	1525	8.5	8.5	6.8	1.000
1541	6.4	6.3	5.5	.984	1400	8.6	8.8	(?)	1.023
1406	6.4	6.5	5.1	1.016	1561	8.8	9.1	8.3	1.034
1595	6.4	6.5	4.7	1.016	1412	9.0	9.5	6.0	1.056
1534	6.5	5.4	(?)	.831	1563	9.1	9.2	(?)	1.011
1605	6.5	6.2	4.6	.954	1419	9.1	9.3	8.3	1.022
1401	6.6	6.6	5.0	1.000	1422	9.1	9.4	8.2	1.033
1637	6.8	6.6	4.2	.971	1524	9.2	9.7	8.4	1.054
1634	6.9	6.4	5.2	.928	1414	10.0	9.6	7.2	.960
1568	6.9	6.8	5.6	.986	1636	10.0	10.5	(*)	1.050
1731	6.9	7.3	6.1	1.058	1409	10.2	10.6	8.6	1.039
1629	7.0	7.0	3.9	1.000	1423	11.0	11.4	9.4	1.036
1628	7.1	7.1	(?)	1.000	1528	11.0	11.8	9.5	1.073
1408	7.1	7.2	6.7	1.014	1416	11.3	11.8	(?)	1.044
1616	7.2	7.2	6.6	1.000	1421	11.6	11.2	10.3	.966
1591	7.3	7.5	6.5	1.027	1427	12.3	14.8	13.8	1.203
1405	7.4	7.4	6.1	1.000	1420	14.5	16.9	14.4	1.166
1410	7.4	7.6	7.2	1.027	Av.	6.81	6.85	----	.993

TABLE 17.—*Correlation between the left and right chelæ and cephalo-thoracic length in second regeneration cases.*

[Data arranged in order of cephalo-thoracic length.]

Catalog No.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Left chela-length.	Right chela, second regenera-tion.	Ratio of left chela to cephalo-thoracic length.	Catalog No.	Cephalo-thoracic length.	Left chela-length.	Right chela, second regenera-tion.	Ratio of left chela to cephalo-thoracic length.
1394	4.0	3.9	3.0	0.975	1522	7.3	7.2	(*)	0.986
1577	4.2	4.3	(*)	1.024	1406	7.3	7.4	5.4	1.014
1594	4.4	4.1	3.1	.932	1627	7.3	7.7	6.4	1.055
1587	4.4	4.3	3.3	.977	1408	8.0	8.0	6.1	1.000
1580	4.4	4.4	3.8	1.000	1731	8.0	8.3	5.0	1.037
1575	4.5	4.4	3.6	.978	1616	8.1	8.5	7.0	1.049
1569	4.6	4.5	(*)	.978	1618	8.3	8.6	(*)	1.048
1398	4.7	4.5	3.3	.957	1591	8.3	8.7	6.9*	1.036
1545	4.8	4.5	3.0	.937	1529	8.6	9.3	7.3	1.081
1518	5.0	4.8	3.6	.960	1526	8.9	9.0	7.2	1.011
1633	5.3	5.2	(*)	.983	1411	9.7	10.1	7.7	1.041
1601	5.4	5.1	(*)	.944	1640	9.7	10.4	7.1	1.072
1514	5.4	5.2	3.7	.963	1419	9.9	10.7	8.9	1.081
1596	5.5	5.5	3.9	1.000	1415	9.9	10.9	(*)	1.101
1598	5.8	5.7	(*)	.983	1561	10.2	10.3	8.2	1.010
1554	5.9	6.1	4.4	1.034	1422	10.2	10.8	8.5	1.059
1402	6.0	5.9	(*)	.983	1524	10.2	10.9	8.9	1.069
1523	6.8	6.9	6.2	1.015	1413	10.4	10.9	8.8	1.048
1532	7.0	7.0	5.5	1.000	Av.	6.99	7.13	----	1.011
1610	7.1	7.1	5.5	1.000					

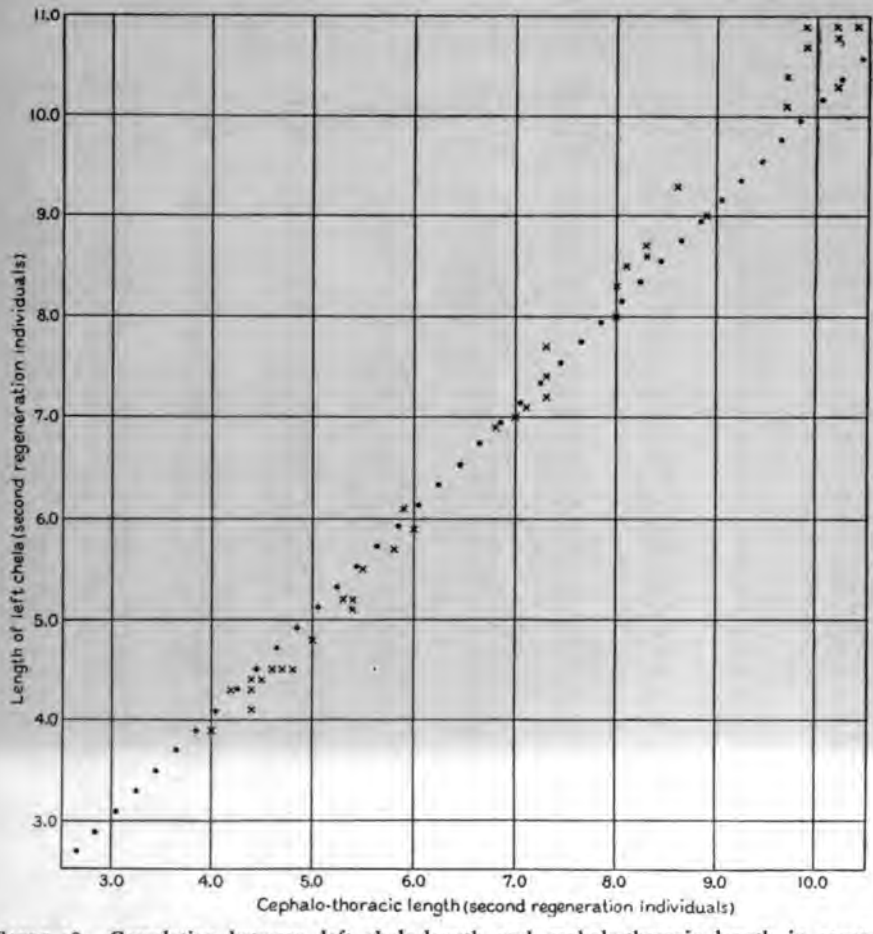

TABLE 18.—Correlation between left chela-length and cephalo-thoracic length in second regeneration cases. *Dotted line*, line along which all the data would be arranged if specific length of left chela were the same for all sizes of individuals.

A tour of inspection in the Booby Colony. Illustrating the tameness of the birds.

Booby Colony looking West. The Yacht Physalia in the distance.

V. A CONTRIBUTION TO THE LIFE-HISTORIES OF THE BOOBY (SULA LEUCOGASTRA) AND MAN-O'-WAR BIRD (FREGATA AQUILA).

BY FRANK M. CHAPMAN,
Of the American Museum of Natural History.

6 plates.

A CONTRIBUTION TO THE LIFE-HISTORIES OF THE BOOBY (SULA LEUCOGASTRA) AND MAN-O'-WAR BIRD (FREGATA AQUILA).

By Frank M. Chapman.

INTRODUCTORY.

The expedition on which the observations herein recorded were made was undertaken primarily to secure specimens, accessories, photographs, and data to be used in the preparation of a "habitat group" of the booby and man-o'war bird in the American Museum of Natural History. Dr. Alfred G. Mayer, in command, George Shiras, 3d, and the writer, sailed from Nassau, March 31, 1907, aboard the *Physalia,* for Cay Verde, about 230 miles to the southeast, where the birds desired were reported to nest. Unfavorable weather prolonged our voyage to the cay to nine days, and this delay, in connection with continued unpleasant weather and the absence of a harbor, made it undesirable to remain at the cay longer than was necessary for the accomplishment of our object. While, therefore, the trip was successful so far as collections for groups were concerned, the three days and nights (April 9 to 11) passed on the cay permitted us to make only the most casual study of the habits of the birds found nesting there. Nevertheless, with the coöperation of Dr. Mayer and Mr. Shiras, information was gathered which appears to deserve record as a contribution to our knowledge of Bahaman bird-life, and particularly to the biographies of the man-o'-war bird and booby, about the nesting habits of which, in this region, little appears to have been written.

CAY VERDE.

Cay Verde lies on the eastern edge of the Columbus Bank, 30 miles southeast of Little Ragged Island. It is about 0.5 mile long by 0.25 mile in greatest width, the longer axis lying approximately north and south, and, roughly estimated, contains some 40 acres. On the west and south, or shallow, Bank sides there are steeply shelving beaches, where, under favorable conditions, a landing may be easily made; on the eastern side the deep-blue waters of the ocean break directly against the characteristic, water-worn limestone rock, of which Cay Verde, in common with other Bahama islands, is composed. At the northern end, where the islet terminates in a point, this rock is but little above sea-level. Southward it gradually increases in

height and, with pronounced irregularities in coast line, reaches a bluff-like elevation of 75 feet at the southeastern extremity of the islet.

About one-eighth of the surface of the island is covered with a dense growth, chiefly of sea-grape (*Coccolobis uvifera*), but with a liberal mixture, mainly about the borders, of a "prickly-pear" cactus (*Opuntia*) and sea-lavender (*Tournefortia gnaphalodes*). Where sufficient soil has accumulated, the remainder of the island supports a growth of coarse grasses, sparse on the higher and rockier portions, more luxuriant in the lower portions, particularly about the margins of a small salt pond, the size of which was dependent upon conditions of tide and wind. There is no fresh water on the cay.

BIRD-LIFE.

In the literature of ornithology, Cay Verde figures only in Bryant's "List of Birds seen at the Bahamas from January 20 to May 14, 1859," where it is casually mentioned[1] as a breeding-place of the tropic-bird (*Phaëthon flavirostris*). This author writes at some length of the nesting habits of the booby and man-o'-war bird as observed on San Domingo Cay and the Ragged Islands, respectively, but does not refer to the colonies of these birds on Cay Verde. Possibly he did not himself visit Cay Verde, where doubtless both the species of birds named have nested for a prolonged period; this cay, so we were informed, having, some ten years ago, been the site of a guano industry, which flourished until all the available deposit had been removed.

The writer's information in regard to the birds of Cay Verde was obtained from the late D. P. Ingraham, who, as a collecting naturalist, visited the cay about 1891. Mr. Ingraham's information in regard to the presence of boobies and man-o'-war birds was fully verified. In May (he also wrote) great numbers of terns (doubtless *Sterna fuliginosa, S. anæthetus,* and *Anous stolidus*) and a few tropic-birds come to the cay to nest.

No land birds appear to be resident on Cay Verde, but it is evidently visited by numbers of migrants. During our stay the following species were noted:

Common name.	Scientific name.
Audubon's shearwater	Puffinus l'herminieri
Sooty tern	Sterna fuliginosa
Great blue heron	Ardea herodias
Little blue heron	Florida cærulea
Black-necked stilt	Himantopus mexicanus
Greater yellow-leg	Totanus melanolucus
Little yellow-leg	Totanus flavipes
Least sandpiper	Tringa minutilla
Turnstone	Arenaria morinella
Osprey	Pandion haliætus

[1] Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., VII, 1859, p. 102.

Common name.	Scientific name.
Duck-hawk	Falco peregrinus anatum
Kingfisher	Ceryle alcyon
Mangrove cuckoo	Coccyzus minor maynardi
Gray kingbird	Tyrannus dominicensis
Savanna sparrow	Passerculus sandwichensis savanna
Palm warbler	Dendroica palmarum palmarum
Myrtle warbler	Dendroica coronata
Yellow-throat	Geothlypis trichas

Audubon's shearwater was doubtless breeding on the cay in some of the innumerable holes in the limestone. No attempt was made to discover it, but the abundance of the birds from nightfall until midnight, as betrayed by their singular calls, together with the absence of other land nearer than 30 miles, leaves little doubt of their presence on the cay. The birds should have been laying at this time, if one may judge from observations made by the writer in May, 1902, in the Washerwoman Keys, off Andros.

A single sooty tern was seen late one afternoon, and numbers of these birds, with probably also bridled terns, were heard flying about the cay after nightfall. Possibly they may have roosted on the cay, or their visit may have had some connection with their later occupation of it as a nesting-ground.

Three duck-hawks living on the cay apparently found sufficient subsistence in the shore-birds (*Limicolæ*) which visited it, and of which they were several times seen in pursuit.

The presence of the birds above mentioned indicates that Cay Verde would be an admirable station for the study of the migration of birds throughout this region. The small size of the cay would permit the taking of fairly accurate daily censuses, while the distance from the nearest land makes it the only available stopping-place in a large area. It is to this isolation that the presence of large numbers of breeding birds on the cay may be chiefly attributed. Animal food is always at a premium in the Bahamas, where indigenous mammalia are virtually absent, and conditions are generally not favorable for the support of domesticated varieties.

The Bahaman negro considers all flesh edible, and those bird rookeries which were most accessible have long ago been devastated for food. The colony containing thousands of man-o'-war birds, which Dr. Bryant (*l. c.*) found on Ragged Island, no longer exists; its extinction, doubtless, being due to the habit, of which we were told, of collecting young man-o'-war birds, salting them, and shipping them as food to other islands.

THE BOOBY.

HABITS.

Although, as a tropicopolitan species, the booby (*Sula leucogastra*) is found throughout the West Indies northward, at least to the mouth of the St. John's River, Florida (where on March 11, 1907, the writer saw 12

individuals), Bryant, as has been before remarked, appears to be the only naturalist who has recorded an authentic description of its nesting in this region. The booby's claim to breeding within the limits of the United States rests on Audubon's account[1] of its nesting on "Noddy Island" in the Tortugas, where, in May, he found that "most of the birds were sitting" on "large and flat" nests "formed of a few dry sticks, covered and matted with sea-weeds in great quantity" and placed "on the top of a bush," while the down-covered nestling is said to have had "the bill and feet of a deep, livid blue or indigo color." But other writers are agreed that *Sula leucogastra* begins to nest in this region in February, lays usually two eggs (always on the ground), uses little if any nesting material, and the bill and feet of the nestling are yellowish-green.

Bryant (*l. c.*), who has commented on this discrepancy, thinks that Audubon may have mistaken nests of the brown pelican for those of the booby; but Audubon's familiarity with the pelican's nesting habits, together with his statement that in all the "booby's" nests examined only one egg was found, some of which had the "chick nearly ready for exclusion," renders Bryant's hypothesis improbable. Furthermore, Audubon's detailed statement that there was a "constant succession of birds coming in from the sea with food for their young, consisting chiefly of flying-fish and mullets, which they disgorged in a half-macerated state into the open throats of their offspring," shows, in spite of some looseness in the description of the manner of feeding, that he had abundant opportunity to observe the parents at close range. That his bird was not *Sula leucogastra* there can be small room for doubt, but it is by no means so certain that it was not the red-footed booby (*Sula piscator*), a species which has been found nesting in Cayman Brac, South of Cuba,[2] and which nests in bushes and lays but one egg.

It is true that Audubon both describes and figures *Sula leucogastra;* nevertheless he observes "that none of the birds which were still brown had nests, and that they roosted apart, particularly on Booby Island (a sand-bar), about 8 miles to the northeast of the Tortugas Lighthouse," which he had found to be "covered with boobies."

This view of the case finds support in the fact that the collection of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences contains a specimen of *Sula piscator* collected by Audubon in Florida and labeled by him "*Sula fusca,*" under which name *Sula leucogastra* was known to him. It is evident, therefore, that Audubon confused the two species, an error which may account for his figuring and describing *Sula leucogastra* when writing of the nesting habits of what appears to have been *Sula piscator.*

[1] Orn. Biog., III, pp. 63–77.
[2] Maynard, Cont. to Science, I, pp. 40–48, 51–57.

Camp on Cay Verde.

Man-o'-War Birds over nests in sea grapes.

Fig. 1. Female Man-o'-War Bird alighting.

Fig. 2. Female Man-o'-War Bird leaving nest.

THE CAY VERDE COLONY.

A partial census of eggs and young led to the conclusion that there were about 1,500 pairs of boobies nesting on Cay Verde. They were distributed in several groups, where the comparatively level surface and sandy soil furnished favorable nesting conditions. In most instances the young were covered with down, with the brown second plumage more or less evident in wings and tail. A few birds of the year were already a-wing and several nests contained fresh eggs. For the greater number of birds, however, the nesting season, as Bryant has stated, evidently begins in February.

THE ADULT BIRDS.

One or both of the adults remain, as a rule, with the young. On March 9, the birds awoke at 5^h 15^m a. m., when for the ensuing 10 or 15 minutes there was a subdued kind of quacking, and some birds were seen flying. At 5^h 30^m several hundred birds left the rookery in a body to go a-fishing, this being the first general movement. Individuals returned at intervals during the day and evidently changed places with the bird left at the nest, which in turn went out to feed and to gather fish for the young. There was no concerted return movement until dusk, when flocks of birds came in from the sea, the last-comers not arriving until after dark. In the meantime the man-o'-war birds had retired, and it is not impossible that the boobies have acquired the habit of " staying out late " to avoid being robbed of their food by the man-o'-war birds, which at times attacked them as they approached the cay and forced them to disgorge.

Sitting or brooding birds spend the night upon the nest with the mates standing at their sides, but the close resemblance of the sexes rendered it impossible to distinguish them at this time. When the young is too large to be brooded, it passes the night on the ground between the two parents, which stand on either side, all three with their heads tucked under their scapulars.

When perched on rocks about the border of the island, boobies showed a decided fear of man and generally flew before one had approached to within 30 yards of them; but when on their nests they were conspicuously tame, the degree of tameness being related to the advance of the nesting season. A bird with newly hatched young would not, as a rule, leave the nest unless actually forced to do so, and it would strike so viciously at anyone approaching that it was well not to venture within its reach. This was the extreme development of parental instinct, which now gradually diminished as the young increased in size. Evidently as a result of excitement caused by our presence, the birds which remained to defend their young threatened us with their bills, picked up bits of sticks or grasses only to drop them and pick them up again, and even struck at their own young in a confused and aimless manner. The young also had this habit. The report of a gun occasioned but little alarm among the boobies, some of which, with their young near my feet, did not fly when the gun was discharged.

In spite of the apparent sociability expressed by their communal habits, the boobies immediately resented trespass on their home site by one of their own kind. Where the nature of the ground permitted, their nests were placed with more or less regularity 6 to 8 feet from one another. As long as a bird remained within its own domain, having a diameter of approximately 6 to 8 feet, it was not molested; but let it or its young advance beyond these limits and they were promptly attacked.

So closely, however, are the birds confined to their own little areas that difficulties of this kind are rare, and under normal conditions peace reigns in the rookery. But when, as we walked through the rookery, the birds in escaping from the larger evil forgot the lesser one and inadvertently backed on to a neighbor's territory, the unusual cause of the trespass was not accepted as an excuse and they found the " frying-pan " worse than the " fire," as the enraged owner, with bristling feathers, furiously assailed them with open bill, sometimes taking hold. At these times, and whenever the birds were alarmed, they gave utterance to hoarse, raucous screams or screeches, though as a rule they were comparatively silent.

THE NEST.

The booby's nests on Cay Verde were usually slight hollows in the ground, with often a scanty lining or rim of dried grasses, but in some instances even this humble preparation for housekeeping was lacking, and the eggs were laid without pretence of nest.

EGGS AND YOUNG.

About 98 per cent of the boobies nesting on Cay Verde had young, some of which were newly hatched, while a few were on the wing, but the largest number were beginning to acquire flight feathers. Of the nests, 35 contained eggs, of which 21 held 2 eggs, while in 14 there was but 1; but possibly in some, if not most of these, another egg would have been laid. As a rule, therefore, there were 2 eggs, this confirming previously recorded observations on the nesting habits of this species. On the other hand, 2 young were the exception. Of 740 nests counted by Dr. Mayer on the east side of the cay, only 2 contained young, and both pairs were well grown and approximately the same size.

Examination of the eggs contained in sets of two showed that either there was a marked difference in the development of the embryos or that one or both eggs were infertile. For example, of 13 nests containing 2 eggs, in 3 nests both were bad; in 10 both were good, but with every good pair there was about a week's difference in the age of the embryo. In 6 nests each containing one young and one egg, 5 of the eggs were decomposed.

With those boobies which lay 2 eggs, apparently a week intervenes between the laying of the first and second egg, and to this unusual irregularity,

in connection with the high percentage of infertility, we attribute the discrepancy between the number of eggs laid and the number of young reared.

Our studies were not sufficiently prolonged to enable us to determine whether, when both eggs were fertile, the young first hatched survived or whether, through continued incubation of the remaining egg, it starved and the young hatched from the last-laid egg lived; but in one instance a nest was observed containing a lately hatched dead young and an egg with an embryo.

The case is unique among birds, as far as I am aware, but that the data on Cay Verde do not reveal an exceptional condition is apparently proven by the observations of Walter K. Fisher[1] in the Leeward Islands of the Hawaiian group, where both *Sula cyanops* and *S. leucogastra* were found to lay 2 eggs and rear but 1 young.

The young booby is born practically naked, and since exposure to the sun before the downy plumage is developed would result fatally, it is constantly brooded, one parent immediately replacing the other when the brooding bird is relieved. Brooding continues even when the white down is well developed and the young bird, then too large to be wholly covered by the parent, lies flat on the ground, the head exposed, the eyes closed, apparently dead. This relaxed attitude is also taken by young which are not sheltered by the parent, and we were not a little surprised on several occasions, when about to examine an evidently dead bird, to have it jump up and with a trumpeting call blare at us with open mouth. Nor do they rely only on the voice for defense, but use the bill effectively, and, as has been remarked, they possess with the adult the somewhat ludicrous habit of venting their feelings by picking up bits of stick and grass.

Compared with other rookeries I have visited, the mortality among young boobies on Cay Verde—aside from the prenatal mortality already referred to—was surprisingly small. This I attribute to the isolation of the cay, which permits the birds to rear their young with little or no intrusion by man, whose presence, even as a visitor, results in great confusion and consequent death among the young of ground-nesting colonial birds.

The young were fed on squids and fishes, which in a more or less digested condition they obtained by thrusting their heads and necks down the parent's throat, a manner of feeding common to all the Steganopodes with whose habits I am familiar (including *Pelecanus, Fregata, Phalacrocorax,* and *Anhinga*). I have not, however, seen *Phaëthon* feeding its young, and it would be interesting to know whether this tern-like member of the order has a similar method of administering food.

Evidently but one brood is reared, since approximately 3 months must elapse after the egg is laid before the young can fly and care for itself.

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[1] Birds of Laysan and the Leeward Islands, Hawaiian Group, U. S. Fish Comm. Bull., 1903, pp. 28–30.

DEVELOPMENT OF PLUMAGE.

At birth the young booby seems to be featherless, but closer examination shows that the white natal down is appearing on all the dorsal pterylæ and upon the posterior margin of the wings, including the alula. The abdominal pterylæ show as yet no evidences of feather growth. The down plumage grows rapidly and, when developed, almost entirely covers the chick's body—the gular pouch, orbital and loral regions, and inner margin of the humerus being the only apteriæ.

The second, juvenile,[1] or nestling plumage of which the down is merely the apical portion,[2] follows the down by continuous growth, the down being a white filamentous fringe to the stronger, brownish feather of the second plumage. This plumage may be first seen in the *pterylæ alaris,* the primaries appearing first, to be quickly followed by the secondaries, tertiaries, and feathers of the alula. At almost the same time the rectrices become evident: soon after the uropygial feathers come. Greater, median, and less upper wing-coverts and tail-coverts emerge, before feathers of the second plumage appear upon the body proper, except those growing from the *pteryla uropygii.*

In the next oldest specimen the juvenile plumage of the breast and abdomen approaches full development and was evidently the first to grow upon the body tracts, except as noted above. On the back the juvenal plumage, although well grown on the *pteryla humeralis,* is but just appearing on the anterior portion of the *pteryla spinalis,* although posteriorly the feathers are larger. The crural and femoral tracts, the outer margins of the manus, a strip at the base of the secondaries, and the whole head and neck are still clad in down.

In the succeeding specimen, the second or juvenal plumage is essentially complete, except upon the foreneck, where it is just emerging. This bird is almost uniform grayish-brown above; the upper tail-coverts are slightly browner; the exposed portion of the remiges and rectrices show a somewhat frosted effect; the primaries are decidedly blackish; the lower breast and abdomen are grayer than the dorsal plumage; the upper breast (with which the throat feathers would apparently agree) is decidedly browner. This is the flight plumage. When it gives way to the succeeding plumage does not appear to be known.

MAN-O'-WAR BIRD.

Descriptions of the nesting habits of the man-o'-war bird (*Fregata aquila*) are based chiefly on studies made in the Pacific. Bryant,[3] whose description of the nesting habits of the booby has already been cited, gives us apparently the only account of the breeding of this species as it occurs in

[1] Dwight, Annals N. Y. Acad. Sci., XIII, pp. 73–360.

[2] Jones, Lab. Bull., No. 13, Oberlin College, pp. 1–18.

[3] Proc. Bost. Soc. Nat. Hist., VII, 1859, p. 126.

Booby, Nest, and two Eggs.

Pair of Boobies with young in which remiges and rectices are appearing.

Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

Fig. 1. Boobies.
Fig. 2. Female Man-o'-War Bird and young.
Fig. 3. Showing habit of picking up sticks, etc., when excited.

Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

Fig. 1. Boobies.
Fig. 2. Female Man-o'-War Bird and young.
Fig. 3. Showing habit of picking up sticks, etc., when excited.

West Indian waters, though it of course has many nesting resorts in this region. Gundlach's[1] notes on the bird in Cuba appear to be based on Audubon's observations. Audubon writes[2] that he found the man-o'-war bird breeding in the Florida Keys "about the middle of May" and even describes its manner of collecting nest-building material; but it is difficult to make his account agree with the known habits of the species. It is true that in May the man-o'-war bird appears in large numbers on the Florida Keys, but such flocks contain young of the year and their presence is due to post-breeding wandering. Audubon states that the man-o'-war bird lays 2 or 3 eggs, "more frequently the latter number," whereas there is abundant testimony to prove that the usual number is 1. Furthermore, the young are covered with snowy white, not "yellowish white" down, as Audubon writes.

Equally important with these errors of commission is Audubon's failure to mention the man-o'-war bird's remarkable habit of inflating its gular pouch to the size of a toy balloon. This is far too conspicuous a feature of the mating and early nesting season[3] to have escaped notice and mention.

What the nests were that Audubon mistook for those of *Fregata aquila* I do not pretend to say; but it is reasonably certain that his identification of them was incorrect.

THE CAY VERDE COLONY.

The luxuriant growth of cactus among the sea-grapes in which the man-o'-war birds nested added to the difficulty with which these thickly branched, shrubby trees were penetrated, and we did not attempt to make a census of the number of birds of this species which were breeding on Cay Verde. We estimated, however, that there were between 200 and 300 pairs.

The nesting season seemed to be about as far advanced as it was with the booby, most of the nests containing half-grown young, but some held fresh eggs, while a few birds of the year were already on the wing. Their manner of nesting prevented us from studying the nesting habits of the man-o'-war bird with the ease which attended our observations of the boobies; and I have but little to record concerning the biography of this species. The specimens collected, however, present some interesting facts (apparently not recorded hitherto) in regard to the development of plumage in the man-o'-war bird.

THE ADULT BIRDS.

The man-o'-war birds awoke at about the same time as the boobies, and at $5^h\ 30^m$ a. m. were sailing over their rookery. From this time until they

[1] Journ. für Orn., 1857, p. 239.

[2] Orn. Biog., III, p. 495.

[3] See W. K. Fisher, Birds of Laysan and the Leeward Islands, Hawaiian Group, U. S. Fish Comm. Bull., 1903, p. 30, pl. VIII, figs. 39, 40.

retired, considerably before the boobies, and while it was yet light, a flock of birds was constantly over the sea-grapes. The birds may be said to have perched in the air above their homes. Only one bird is in attendance on the young at the same time. Both sexes assumed this duty, as well as the task of incubation; but there appeared to be no regularity as to when male or female should be on guard.

The man-o'-war birds were less tame than the boobies and, as a rule, left the nest when one approached to within 30 or 40 feet of them. When, however, they were brooding newly hatched chicks they showed more bravery.

In most instances the gular pouch had faded from carmine to orange, and only one individual was seen with the pouch inflated, as Fisher has described it (*l. c.*). As I attempted to approach this bird, the pouch was suddenly deflated.

The man-o'-war birds were not seen to devour the young of their own species, as they have been said to do; nor were they observed to capture young boobies. Occasionally they chased the adult boobies and made them disgorge in the air, but evidently, in the main, they did their own purveying, flying-fish being taken from the throat of one bird that was shot.

The adults were not heard to utter a sound.

THE NEST.

The nests are frail, open-worked, slightly hollowed platforms, composed of small sticks and twigs, placed in the tops of the sea-grapes, at a height of 6 or 7 feet, or among the cactuses within 2 feet of the ground. Several nests are often placed in one bush within reaching distance of one another. They become matted with filth as the young increase in size. One adult was seen carrying nest-building material in its bill.

THE EGG AND YOUNG.

The man-o'-war bird lays but one egg, and in a number of nests fresh eggs were found. The young are born naked and are brooded by the parents. As they increase in size and become covered with white down, their wings seem to be much too large for them to hold close to the body, and relaxing, are permitted to rest on the nest. Their whole attitude suggests extreme dejection; not only do the wings droop, but the head often hangs over the edge of the nest. When approached they utter a squealing, chippering call, and snap their bills with a rattling sound, both the note and action strongly suggesting similar habits of the young brown pelican.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF PLUMAGE.

The newly hatched man-o'-war bird is without down, except upon the tail, alula, and those portions of the forearm from which the remiges grow. When fully developed, this natal down, while not so uniformly

dense as in *Sula leucogastra,* grows from all parts of the body except the inner surface of the legs, the gular pouch, and the throat. On the interscapular region, however, the natal down is not given much opportunity for growth, the black feathers of the second or juvenile plumage appearing in the *pteryla humeralis* and *pteryla dorsalis* immediately after the down of these tracts has pushed through the skin, if indeed—in some cases—they do not emerge without being preceded by down. The development of these interscapular feathers is remarkable, and before there is any evidence of the remiges and rectrices they cover the back like a mantle, as may be seen in the photographs of young birds in the nest.

It is surprising that in a bird famed for its power in flight, and possessed of exceptional length of wing and tail, the feathers of these parts, contrary to the general rule, should not take the lead in development. Comparison of the young of *Fregata* and of *Sula leucogastra,* for example, in which wing-feathers of the second plumage are just evident, shows that while the former has the whole interscapular region black, some of the feathers being 3.75 inches in length, *Sula* shows as yet no signs of second plumage in this region.

Not only are the wing feathers in *Fregata* late in appearing, but the secondaries precede the primaries, the former averaging 2 inches in length, with the greater and median coverts showing, when the latter are just observable. At this time the feathers of the uropygium and tail become evident; the outer tail feathers appear considerably in advance of the others, and give us a hint of their subsequent extreme length; but the order of growth of the feathers of the wing does not suggest that exceptional development of the feathers of this member which so distinguishes *Fregata.*

Specimens are lacking in which to trace the development of the plumage in detail. The largest bird in the series shows, however, further departure from the usual order in feather growth in the young bird, by having the second plumage of the head appear while the rectrices and remiges are still small and the natal down still remains on the lower back, the crural and femoral tracts, a large part of the ventral tracts, and at the base of the secondary and primary wing-coverts.

Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

Fig. 1. Young Man-o'-War Birds. Showing great development of the inter-scapulars and relaxed wings.

Fig. 2. Twin Boobies.

VI. THE HABITS AND EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF LINERGES MERCURIUS.

BY EDWIN G. CONKLIN,
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8 plates, 2 text figures.

THE HABITS AND EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF LINERGES MERCURIUS.

By Edwin G. Conklin.

During a part of April and May, 1905, while a guest of the Carnegie Institution of Washington at its Marine Laboratory at Tortugas, Florida, I had opportunity to study the habits and early development of the scyphomedusan *Linerges mercurius* Haeckel, but was unable at that time to complete the work, owing to the sudden disappearance of these jelly-fishes. I spent the month of July of the same year at the Bermuda Biological Station, but did not find a single specimen of these medusæ until the day on which I sailed for home, when they appeared in great numbers, but too late for me to continue my work upon them. During the month of April, 1907, I was again the guest of the Carnegie Institution at its temporary station at Nassau, New Providence, Bahamas, and there obtained enough of these jelly-fishes to continue the work which had been begun two years before. But here also the work was interrupted by the sudden disappearance of these animals; however, I have decided to publish this report of my work, although it is still in many respects incomplete, since I may not again in the near future have an opportunity to study these forms.

HABITS.

Occurrence.—The sudden appearance, in great numbers, of *Linerges* and its equally sudden disappearance has been noted by other observers. The animals began to appear when I first arrived in Tortugas, April 24, and increased in numbers until April 28, on which day they were present in countless myriads, usually stretching in great windrows across the surface of the water. On April 29 very few could be found; on April 30 an extended search all around the fort and harbor failed to reveal more than 20 individuals; on subsequent days none were present. They appeared and disappeared in a similarly sudden manner at Nassau, between April 23 and April 30, and at Bermuda between July 27 and August 1.

How is this sudden appearance of the *Linerges* swarm to be explained? There is no evidence that they drift in on ocean currents from some other locality and disappear in the manner in which they came. On the contrary, they frequently occur in relatively inclosed areas, where currents are not strong, and before or after the swarming they are not to be found in the

surrounding waters. On the other hand, I have observed that when they first appear they come up from deep water, and their disappearance can be seen to be due to their sinking from the surface into greater depths. In 1907 I first found them outside of Nassau harbor far below the surface; day after day they were found nearer the surface, until the great swarm appeared, after which they again settled into deeper water.

The cause of their sudden disappearance may be observed in the laboratory as well as in nature. The sexual products are shed during the swarming and after the gonads are emptied the medusæ settle to the bottom and soon thereafter begin to disintegrate, as may readily be seen in an aquarium. It can also be observed that the same thing takes place in nature, where many dead or dying medusæ may be found over the bottom in shallow water after the swarm has disappeared. The enormous numbers of the swarm and its limited duration, as well as the fact that the medusæ come up from deep water, all indicate that they must be formed and set free in the immediate vicinity of the place where they appear at the surface.

Movement to the surface is an active and not a passive process; the medusæ and their eggs are heavier than water, and they settle to the bottom when undisturbed or when movement ceases. The movements to or from the surface are not correlated with the intensity of light, as is the case in so many pelagic organisms, for during the swarming these medusæ are at the surface at all hours of the day and, so far as I could observe, of the night also. Furthermore, they appear at the surface at no other time than the swarming period. It is highly probable that the movement to the surface is correlated with the ripening of the sexual products; and it is certain that the swarming is of importance to the species, since the ripe males and females are thus brought near together at the time when the sex products are ready to be shed. The collection of these medusæ into windrows is of great advantage in insuring the fertilization of the eggs, but it is probably not brought about by the activities of the animals, other than those which serve to keep them at the surface of the water. Probably the winds and waves gather them into the windrows.

Movements.—The normal movements of *Linerges* are of two kinds: (1) the pulsations which drive the animal forward in swimming, and (2) rhythmical flattening of the bell, by bringing together opposite sides, so that the opening into the bell is elongated first in one direction, then in another. These latter movements are especially prominent when the medusæ are confined within a small space, are much irritated, or when lying on the bottom. This flattening of the bell may be violent, in which case the opening into the bell becomes slit-like, or it may be weak, in which case the bell opening is quadrangular or triangular in shape. When violent, the directions of flattening are alternately almost at right angles, but not quite. When viewed

from the oral pole the successive axes of elongation (or flattening), in some cases at least, pass slowly around the bell in an anti-clockwise direction.

In the normal forward movements the animal always rotates in an anti-clockwise direction, when viewed from the oral pole. They may stand for some time with the aboral pole at the surface of the water and rotate rapidly in the direction named, without much forward movement, but always with pulsations of the bell. The cause of this rotation lies in the lobes or lappets at the margin of the bell, which is so arranged that the right side of each lappet (when viewed from the center of the oral pole) lies nearer the oral surface of the bell than the left side, and usually the right side overlaps the left side of the next lappet to the right. Therefore, in pulsations of the bell, water is directed out in a clockwise spiral, which causes the animal to rotate in an anti-clockwise direction. If the lappets are cut off, the bell may continue to pulsate, but the animal only moves forward slowly and does not rotate. If a hole is cut in the aboral side of the bell and the stomach and manubrium removed, the bell continues to pulsate and the animal moves forward normally and with anti-clockwise rotation, though these movements are slower than normal. If the whole margin of the bell is cut off it continues to contract for a long time, the movements being almost entirely such as flatten the ring alternately in one direction and then in another (second type of movement described above). The remainder of the bell, after the margin has been removed, is usually quiescent, but may sometimes contract slowly. If the marginal ring is cut in two so as to form a long, narrow ribbon, it still continues to contract rhythmically for several hours.

Egg-laying.—The males and females of this species may be distinguished by the color of the ripe gonads; the male gonads are brown, those of the female slate or blue-gray.

The eggs are laid and fertilized about 8 a. m., and at no other period of the day. The egg-laying begins by the escape of a few isolated eggs from a few individuals, but in a short time a perfect "epidemic" of egg-laying takes place, after which no other eggs are laid until the following day. The eggs escape in masses held together by a thin jelly. Occasionally small, immature eggs are laid along with the mature ones, but this is rare; usually all the eggs are mature when laid. Each egg is closely surrounded by a very thin transparent membrane which persists until the gastrula stage. Outside this membrane are numerous small, brown bodies which are probably follicle cells.

The spermatozoa are shed at the same time that the eggs are laid, but I was unable to determine whether one of these processes stands in a causal relation to the other.

The egg-laying usually takes place very close to the surface of the water, after which the eggs gradually settle through the water to the bottom of the aquarium. If the gonads have not been emptied on the first day the medusæ

may survive and shed their sex cells on a subsequent day. When the gonads have been emptied the medusæ settle to the bottom and die.

DEVELOPMENT.

The egg-structure.—The newly-laid eggs vary somewhat in size, but average about 240 μ in diameter. They are blue or blue-gray in color. They show no polar differentiation save that the germinal vesicle is frequently (perhaps always) eccentric toward the future maturation pole.

The living eggs are too opaque to show much of their structure, and eggs which have been fixed and sectioned often show certain artifacts, the results of the reagents used. It is therefore difficult to determine with certainty what the normal structure of the egg is. In the living egg, as well as in material fixed in various standard fluids there is a peripheral layer of clear protoplasm in which there are few yolk spherules, and these quite small; this peripheral layer may therefore be considered a normal feature. In the most perfectly fixed material there is a layer of densely packed yolk spherules just inside the peripheral layer; while within this is a central area containing fewer yolk spherules scattered through a fluid or semi-fluid matrix which probably represents dissolved yolk (figs. 37, 39). In material fixed in picro-acetic or picro-sulphuric acid the peripheral layer may be separated by a space from the deeper-lying parts of the egg; on the other hand, in material fixed in Hermann's or Flemming's solutions such a space does not appear, and it is evidently an artifact. Furthermore, in picric fixation the central area is more homogeneous in appearance and the yolk is more compact than in material fixed in Hermann's or Flemming's fluids. It is difficult to decide which of these fixations represents more nearly the normal condition of the central area, but this is not a matter of much importance, since in all the fixations used the yolk spherules are less densely crowded together in the central area than in the surrounding layer.

Hargitt (1906) found a concentric arrangement of the cytoplasm of the eggs of *Pennaria,* after they had been fixed in picro-sulphuric solutions, but he regards this as an artifact, due to poor fixation. However, so far as the peripheral layer of protoplasm is concerned, it has been seen in the living eggs of many cœlenterates; it is therefore not an artifact, nor is it of rare occurrence. As to the central area of the egg, it is known from a study of the living transparent eggs of several genera of medusæ and ctenophores that the substance of this area is frequently of a foamy, or vacuolar, character and that it contains only a scanty reticulum of protoplasm and but few yolk spherules. I conclude, therefore, that both the peripheral layer and the central area shown in my sections of the *Linerges* egg are of normal occurrence. The layer of closely packed yolk spherules, which surrounds the central area, is the only layer which has not been observed either in *Linerges* or elsewhere in the living egg, but if both peripheral and central areas are faith-

fully fixed in my sections of the *Linerges* egg it seems probable that the layer between these two is also a normal feature of this egg.

Furthermore, by means of high centrifugal force the substances of the egg of *Linerges* may be separated into three distinct zones, the lightest of which is clear protoplasm, the heaviest a yellow substance crowded with yolk spherules, and intermediate between these a zone of blue or blue-gray material. It is difficult to determine whether these zones correspond to the three concentric layers just described, but they at least show the presence of substances of different specific weights in the unsegmented egg.

There are two kinds of spherules within the oöplasm; (1) large yolk spherules ranging from 3 to 9 μ in diameter, and (2) small spherules, densely black after Flemming's fluid, which are from 0.5 to 1 μ in diameter. The latter are at first distributed quite uniformly throughout the oöplasm, but during mitosis they gather closely around the spindles and nuclei.

The germinal vesicle is relatively large and contains a single large nucleolus which is usually vacuolated and in some cases an additional smaller nucleolus may be present (plate 1, figs. 1, 2). The chromatin consists of small granules scattered through the achromatic ground substance (plate 1, fig. 1). In the prophase of the first maturation this chromatin is differentiated into oxychromatin granules and into a relatively small number of basichromatin rods (plate 1, fig. 2), which in certain stages have the form of tetrads.

Maturation and fertilization.—As maturation approaches, the germinal vesicle moves up to the periphery of the egg; in fact, the outer side of the vesicle comes into contact with the cell membrane and in some cases (probably abnormal) the germinal vesicle is protruded from the egg as if it were being squeezed out bodily (plate 1, figs. 1, 2). When the wall of the germinal vesicle dissolves a relatively enormous quantity of achromatic substance escapes into the cell body.

Two polar bodies are formed in the usual manner; however, both first and second maturation spindles are very small, about 0.002 part of the volume of the germinal vesicle, and they exhibit neither centrosomes nor polar rays. During the formation of the first polar body a lobe of clear protoplasm appears at the vegetal pole, just as is the case among annelids and mollusks. This lobe soon disappears and does not again reappear at the second maturation division or the first cleavage, as it does in the cases of annelids and mollusks (fig. 3). In one or two instances I have seen the head of the spermatozoon within or just central to this lobe (fig. 4), and it is possible that the lobe is formed at the point of entrance of the sperm. If this be true the sperm enters at or near the vegetal pole, as is the case with so many animals.

Hargitt (1906) believes that in *Clava, Pennaria,* and *Eudendrium* no mitotic figures are present during maturation and "that the reduction phenomena of maturation may well be accomplished without any of the

complex and spectacular processes of mitosis." No confirmation of such a view can be found in the egg of *Linerges*, where both maturation spindles may be seen in eggs stained and mounted entire, as well as in sections.

First cleavage.—The egg nucleus remains near the maturation pole and the sperm nucleus migrates up through the egg until it comes to lie just beneath or alongside of the egg nucleus (figs. 5, 39). The cleavage amphiaster then arises, but I have not observed the details of its origin. The chromosomes are then divided in the usual manner and the daughter nuclei are formed by the fusion of chromosomal vesicles (fig. 6). In the telophase of the division each of the daughter nuclei is sometimes composed of two equal vesicles (fig. 7) which probably represent the halves of the egg and sperm nuclei, the gonomeres of Haecker (1902). Chromosomal vesicles or gonomeres are present in many of the later cleavages, but in no instance have I seen any evidence that the nuclei ever divide by amitosis, as Child (1907) and Hargitt (1904, 1906) suppose to be the case in other cœlenterates.

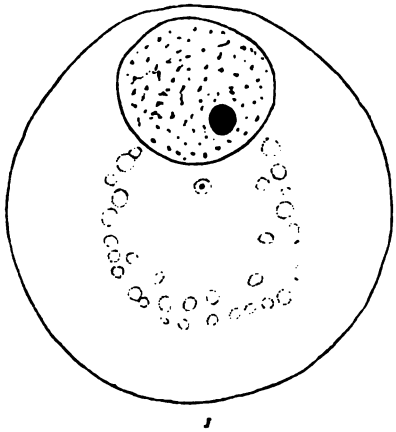
I have followed the cleavage in *Linerges* cell by cell to the 64-cell stage and can affirm that up to this stage at least every cell divides by mitosis, while mitosis is of very frequent, if not of universal occurrence in the later divisions. In view of this fact it is needless to say that the case of *Linerges* affords no evidence whatever in favor of the view expressed by Hargitt (1906) that nuclei arise *de novo* during the cleavage of *Eudendrium, Pennaria, Clava,* and perhaps of other cœlenterates also.

After the division of the nucleus the cell-body begins to divide in the manner characteristic of the cœlenterates. The peripheral layer is thicker at the animal pole than elsewhere, as Ziegler (1903) in particular has shown for the ctenophore *Beroë*. The cleavage-furrow begins at this point and slowly cuts through the egg to the vegetal pole. The advancing edge of the cleavage-furrow (or "cleavage-head") is always rounded, and as the walls of the furrow come together behind this edge there is left a hole through the egg. In the earlier stages of cleavage this hole is elongated in the direction of the cleavage plane (figs. 8, 9, 15, 16); in later stages, as the hole approaches the periphery it becomes elongated at right angles to the cleavage plane (figs. 10, 11, 17, 18). As this advancing furrow approaches the vegetal pole the yolk is pushed aside and the peripheral layer of protoplasm from the animal pole comes into contact with that of the vegetal pole, leaving a connecting strand or bridge of protoplasm between the 2 blastomeres at the vegetal pole (figs. 11, 12). It frequently happens that after nearly reaching the vegetal pole the hole or cleavage head turns to one side (fig. 11), probably owing to the streaming of protoplasm through the bridge from one cell to the other. In this way the furrow may be turned to one side, and the daughter cells become unequal (fig. 13).

Sections of the egg before this cleavage is finished show a large cavity within the egg along the line of the cleavage-furrow (figs. 40–43). This

PLATE 1

CONKLIN—LINERGES MERCURIUS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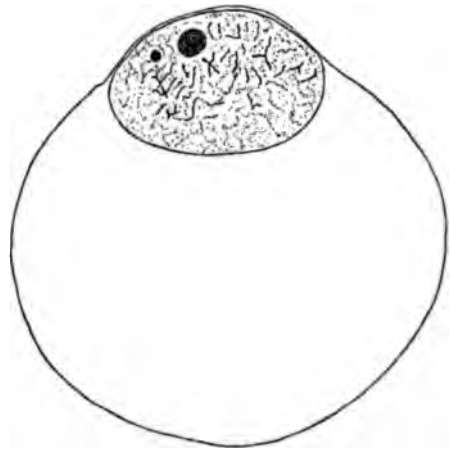
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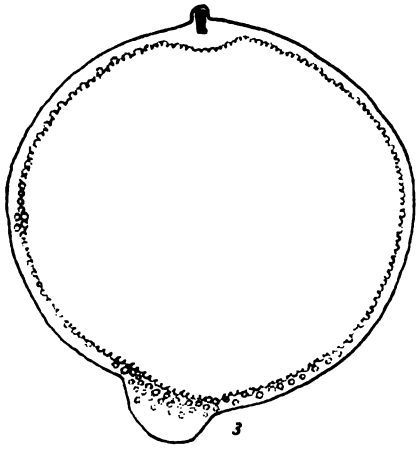
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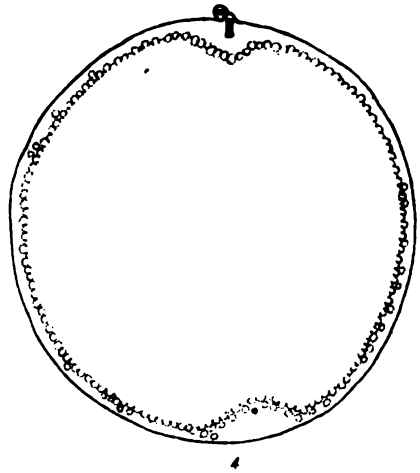
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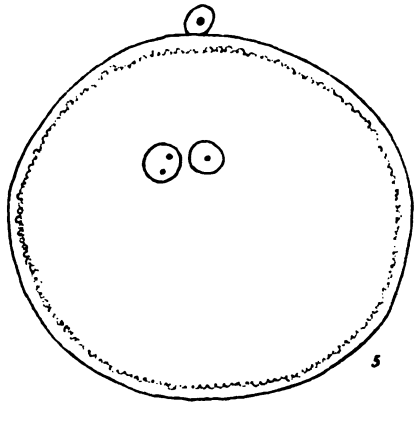
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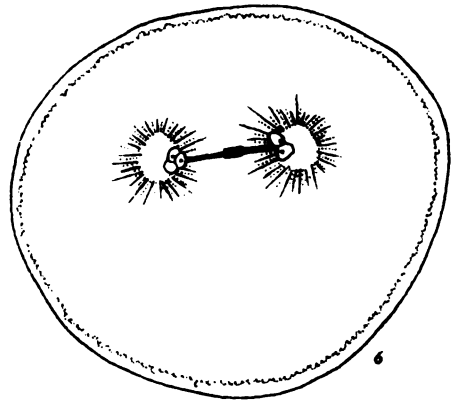
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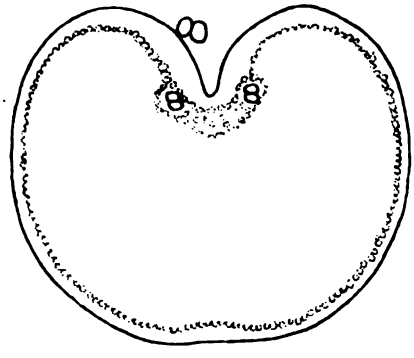

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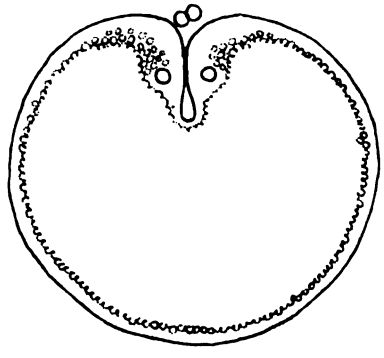

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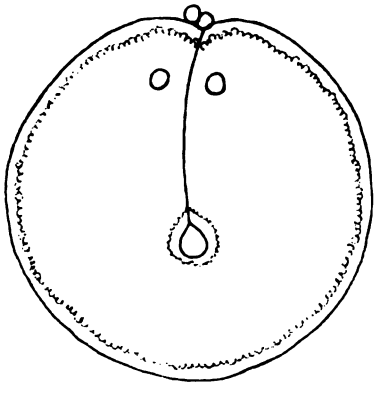

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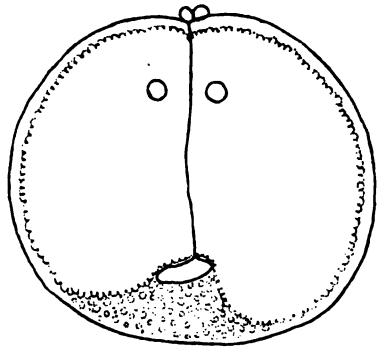

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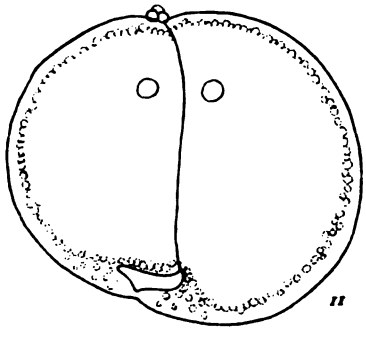

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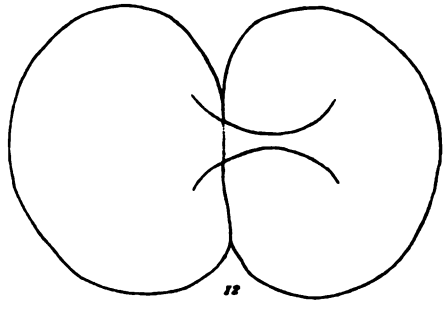

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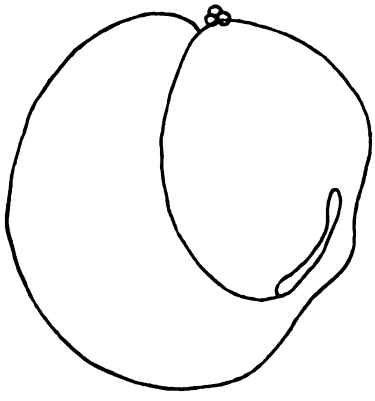

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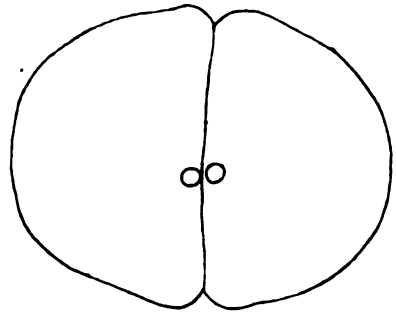

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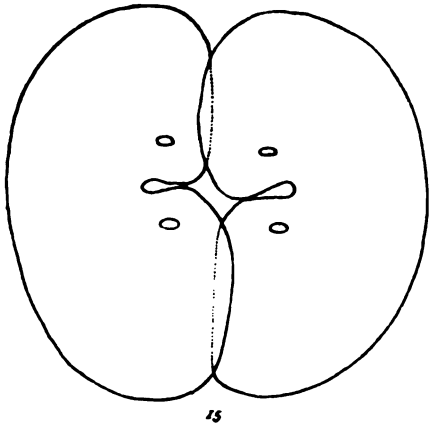

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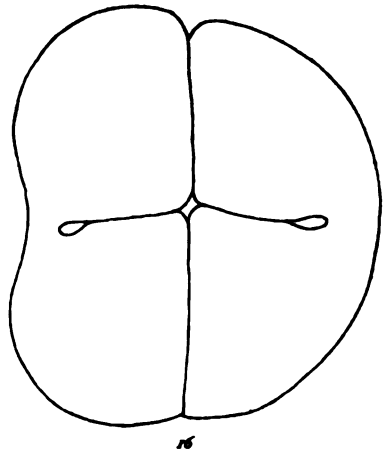

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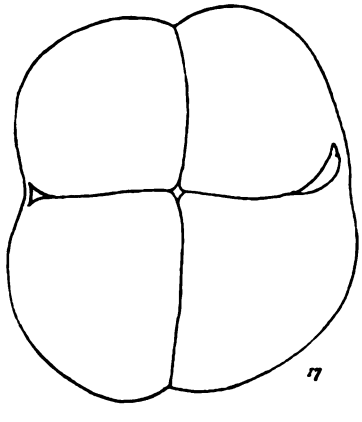

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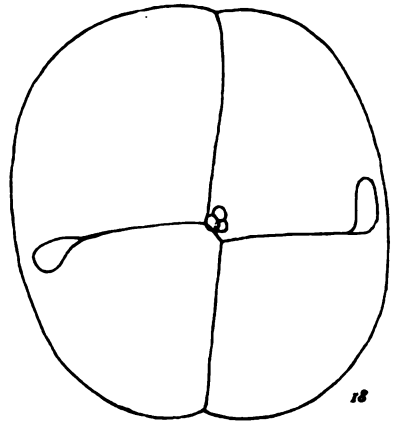

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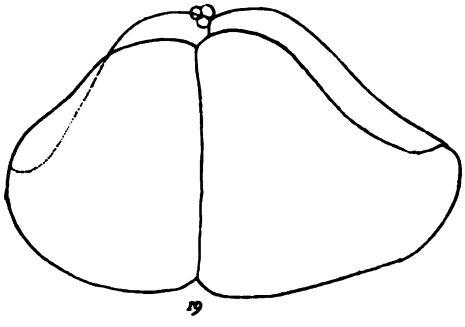

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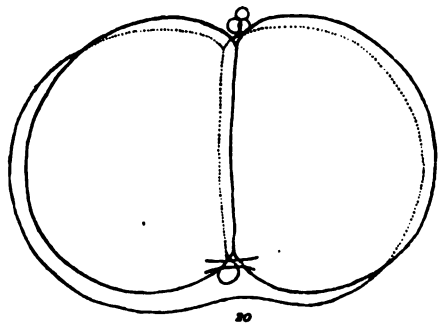

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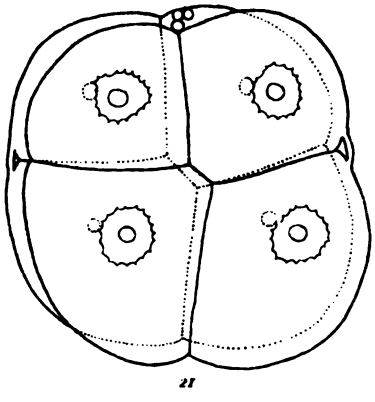

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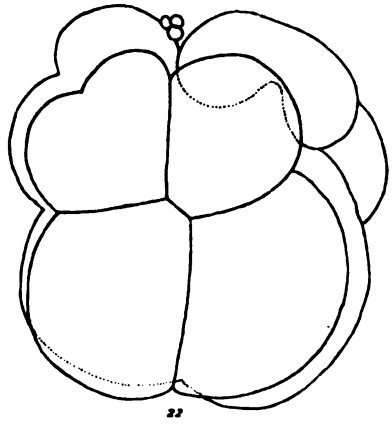

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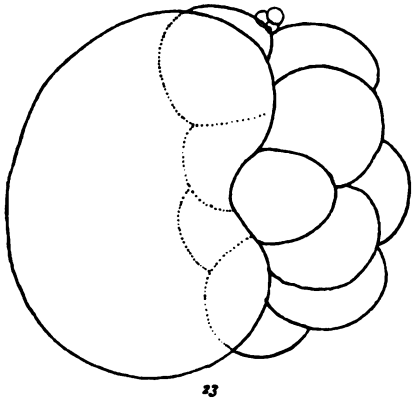

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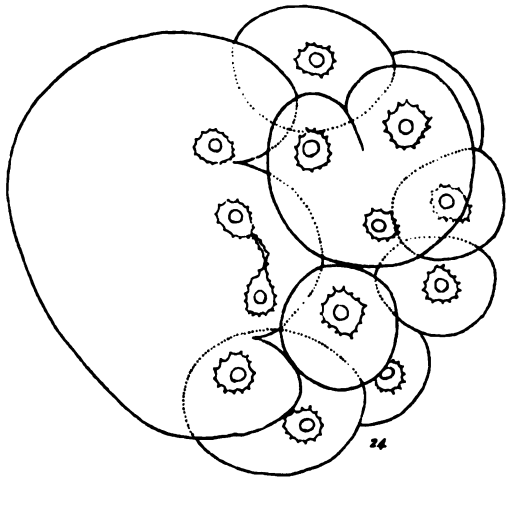

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cavity is filled with the gelatinous or fluid substance which forms the ground-substance of the central area of the unsegmented egg (*cf.* figs. 39, 40). Whether this cavity is in any sense an artifact, and if so to what extent, are questions which are difficult to answer, since the eggs are so opaque in life that their centers can not readily be seen. However, a cleavage cavity is a normal feature in the later stages of this and of most other eggs, and since the cavity present along the line of the first cleavage is directly continuous with this later cleavage cavity I conclude that it is normal and not an artifact. This cavity is found only in the region of the central area of the egg and it does not extend through the peripheral layers to the surface; furthermore, it does not communicate with the cleavage head, if one may so judge from the fact that the fluid contents of the cavity do not escape. A large part of the ground-substance of the central area of the egg escapes into this cavity during the first cleavage (fig. 41, 43), and most of that which is left in the blastomeres escapes into the cleavage cavity during the second and third cleavages (figs. 44, 45). Owing to the escape of this fluid substance from the blastomeres the latter are left much more compact and with yolk spherules more closely crowded together than in the unsegmented egg (*cf.* figs. 37, 44). Another evidence that the escape of this central ground-substance into the cleavage cavity is a normal occurrence is found in the fact that although the cleavage cavity becomes quite large, the volume of the entire egg is scarcely greater in the 8-cell or 16-cell stage than in the 1-cell stage (*cf.* figs. 37 and 46). The substance which escapes into the cleavage cavity probably represents a fluid yolk, which is gradually used up in the nourishment of the embryo.

Second and later cleavages.—The subsequent cleavages are fairly regular and in all of them, as far as I have observed, the nuclei divide by mitosis and in a manner similar to that described for the first cleavage. The divisions of the cell bodies are also similar to that of the first cleavage, though some of them merit a special description.

The second cleavage begins along the line of the first, in the center of the egg, and cuts through to the periphery (figs. 15-18). This cleavage progresses more rapidly on the side of the animal pole than on that of the vegetal pole, with the result that the connecting strand between the daughter cells is left at the periphery of the egg in the vegetal hemisphere (figs. 19, 20); later, perhaps by a slight rotation of these cells, this strand is carried still nearer to the vegetal pole (fig. 20). During this cleavage the animal hemisphere of the egg is highly arched, the vegetal hemisphere flat (fig. 19). The 4 blastomeres which result from this cleavage are approximately equal in size.

The third cleavage is equatorial and divides the egg into 8 adequal cells (fig. 21). This cleavage also begins at the center of the egg adjoining the cleavage cavity (figs. 44, 45) and cuts through to the periphery, where a connecting strand is left (fig. 21). This is the latest stage in which I

have observed the connecting strand of peripheral protoplasm between two daughter cells. This strand is evidently the result of the unilateral constriction of the cell body, and this in turn has been held to be due to the greater amount of peripheral protoplasm on one side than on another (Ziegler, 1903). If this be true of the third cleavage as well as of the first, the protoplasmic layer should be thickest at this stage on the surface adjoining the cleavage cavity, but this is never the case. In my opinion, unilateral constriction is due in large part to the presence of a more fluid central area, as I shall show in the last section of this paper, and, therefore, when the substance of this central area disappears in the formation of the cleavage cavity and its contents, unilateral constriction during cell division also disappears.

The escape of the central ground-substance into the cleavage cavity may often be seen to take place by the separation of small globules from the inner ends of the cells, in a manner similar to that in which the so-called "plasmic corpuscles" arise in the blastocœl of *Phoronis* (Ideka, 1901) and *Terebratulina* (Conklin, 1902).

In the 8-cell stage shown in figure 44 the coagulated contents of the cleavage cavity are shown escaping at the vegetal pole, probably owing to shrinkage due to fixation. The 8-cell stage gives rise by meridional cleavages to the 16-cell stage (fig. 45). Figures 25 to 27 represent three successive cleavages of one and the same egg. Up to this stage the cleavages are normally quite regular; sometimes, however, they are more or less irregular, as shown by figures 22 to 24. These irregularities consist mainly in the temporary suppression of the division of the cell-body in one or more of the blastomeres. However, the nuclei in these blastomeres continue to divide by mitosis and the cell bodies subsequently divide (fig. 24); such eggs frequently give rise to normal blastulæ and gastrulæ. I have never observed such irregularities of cleavage in *Linerges* as have been seen by Hargitt (1904, 1906) in *Pennaria, Endendrium,* and *Clava.*

In the transition from the 32-cell to the 64-cell stage every nucleus divides by mitosis, as is shown in figure 28. In later stages the cell divisions have not been followed in detail, but I have nowhere seen any evidence of amitosis. The 64-cell stage (fig. 29) gives rise to a stage of about 128 cells (fig. 30), and the latter to a stage of double that number of cells.

Blastula and gastrula.—In a stage of about 500 cells (fig. 31) the cleavage cavity is somewhat eccentric toward the vegetal pole, and the cells at this pole are more rounded and less elongated than elsewhere; these rounded cells are endoderm. In many cases the polar bodies remain attached to the egg within the egg-membrane, and in such cases they usually lie at the pole opposite the endoderm pole, as is true of practically all animals. The animal pole of the egg becomes, therefore, the ectodermal pole of the gastrula, the vegetal pole of the egg, the endodermal pole of the gastrula.

After the 32-cell stage the entire embryo grows larger, apparently

through the increased size of the blastocœl (figs. 29 to 32, 47, 48). At the same time the contents of the blastocœl become more fluid and stain less deeply, as compared with the earlier stages.

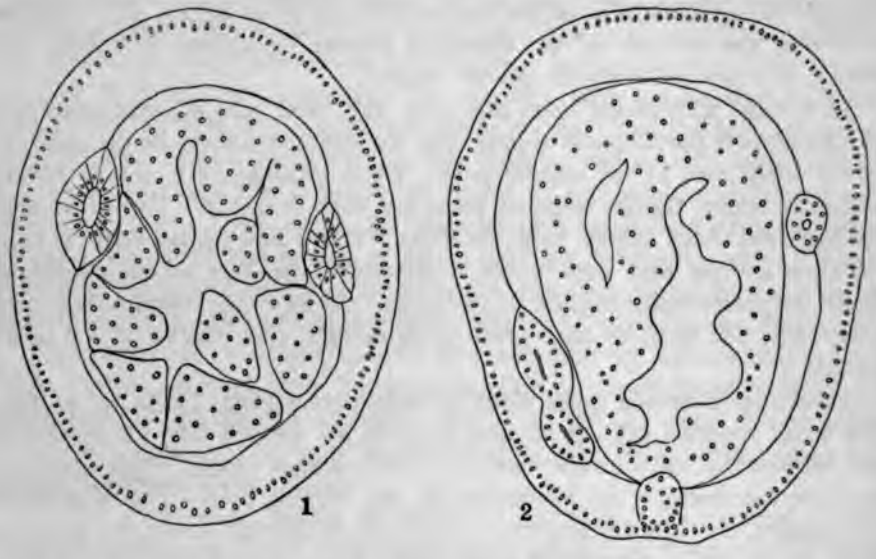
In a stage with about 1,000 cells (fig. 32), clear protoplasmic processes which resemble pseudopodia appear over the entire periphery of the embryo, save a small area at the vegetal pole. These processes are usually blunt-conical in shape, though some of them are very irregular. They lie under the egg-membrane, which they lift from the surface of the egg. These processes are the first steps in the formation of the cilia which ultimately clothe the entire outer surface of the larva. At first they move slowly and irregularly, but later, as they grow more slender, they vibrate in a typical manner.

Gastrulation usually takes place by invagination (figs. 33, 34, 47 to 49). The small rounded cells at the vegetal pole are pushed into the blastocœl and become the walls of the enteron, a flask-shaped cavity which opens to the exterior through the blastopore at the vegetal pole. The blastopore soon closes, so that the enteron is shut off completely from the exterior (figs. 35, 36, 50). Sometimes gastrulation takes place by the immigration of a mass of endoderm cells at the vegetal pole, and in such cases there is at first no enteric cavity in this mass of entoderm cells. Later these cells separate and arrange themselves around an enteric cavity, and the end result is the same as in cases of typical invagination. The close relationship between unipolar immigration and invagination is thus clearly shown by the occurrence of both processes in different eggs of the same animal.

In other genera of Scyphomedusæ all forms of gastrulation (invagination, immigration, delamination) occur. This fact indicates that the form of gastrulation is of no fundamental or general significance, but that it depends upon individual or environmental conditions.

Planula.—After the closure of the blastopore the embryo elongates and becomes a free-swimming planula (figs. 35, 36). The endoderm no longer forms a simple layer, but consists of a more or less irregular mass of cells, within which is the enteric cavity (figs. 35, 36, 50). In many cases (perhaps in all) several small ingrowths of ectoderm cells into the space between ectoderm and endoderm takes place (plate 8, fig. 50, text-figs. 1, 2). These ectodermal masses then become hollow. Owing to my failure to obtain material of the later stages of development I have been unable to determine their significance.

The latest stage in the development of *Linerges* which I have seen, corresponds to plate 8, figure 50 and to text-figures 1 and 2. At this stage there is no opening into the enteric cavity, though the ectodermal invagination shown at the narrower end of the larva in text-figure 2 may represent the formation of the mouth. With this stage—the free-swimming planula—my observations on the normal development come to an end.

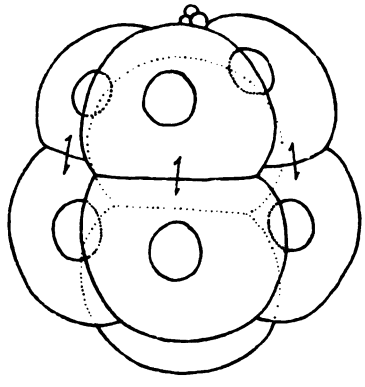


FIGS. 1 AND 2.—Longitudinal sections of the advanced planulæ, showing the columnar ectoderm, the more or less solid endoderm, containing irregular or radiating cavities, and the ectodermal invaginations which lie between the ectoderm and endoderm and are of doubtful significance. An ectodermal invagination at the narrower pole of fig. 2 may represent the stomodæal invagination.

As compared with the development of other medusæ, the entire embryology of *Linerges* is characterized by the regularity of the processes of cleavage and gastrulation; and although this regularity may suffer certain modifications, without preventing the formation of a normal planula, there is in this species none of that extreme irregularity which characterizes the development of *Pennaria* (Hargitt, 1904).

EXPERIMENTS.

Isolation of blastomeres.—My observations on the development of parts or the unsegmented egg and of isolated blastomeres are essentially similar to those of Zoja (1895) and Maas (1905). Parts of the unsegmented but fertilized egg may give rise to swimming larvæ; these are almost certainly the parts containing the egg and sperm nuclei. Isolated blastomeres, at least as late as the 4-cell stage, give rise to swimming larvæ, which are apparently normal; however the lack of clearly differentiated organs in the planula makes it difficult to determine in this stage whether the larvæ are wholly normal or not. When the egg fragments are small, or when the blastomeres are isolated at a late stage of the cleavage, the blastocœl is relatively small and the gastrulation is not normal. These results are essentially like those obtained by all investigators of the development of the Cnidaria.



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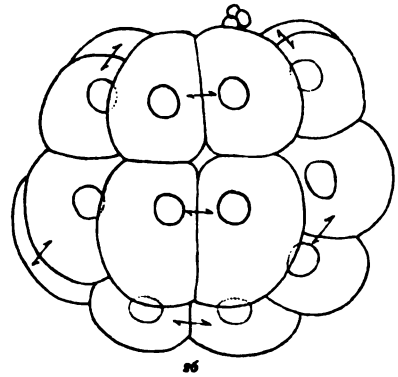

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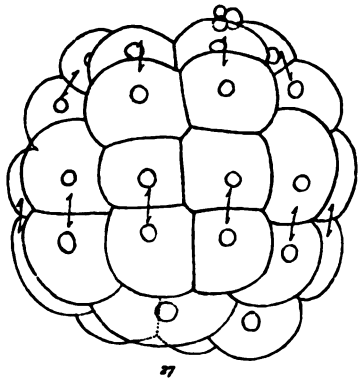

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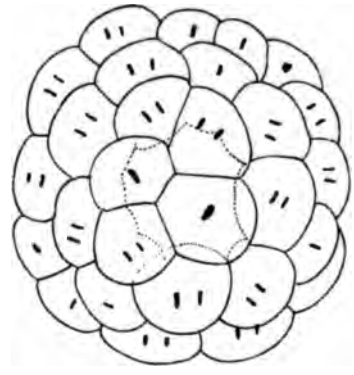

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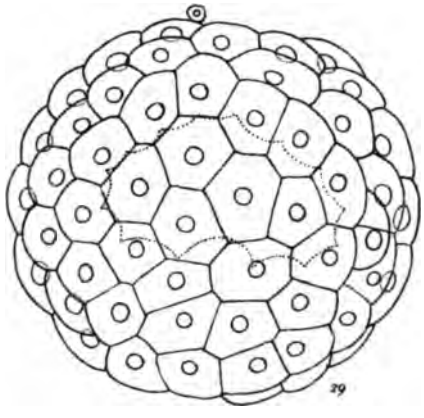

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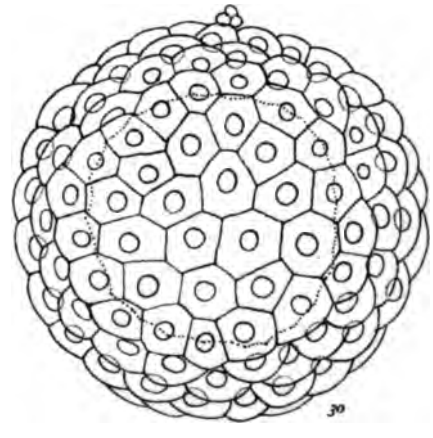

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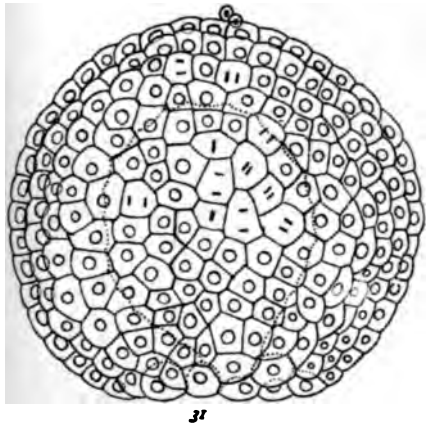

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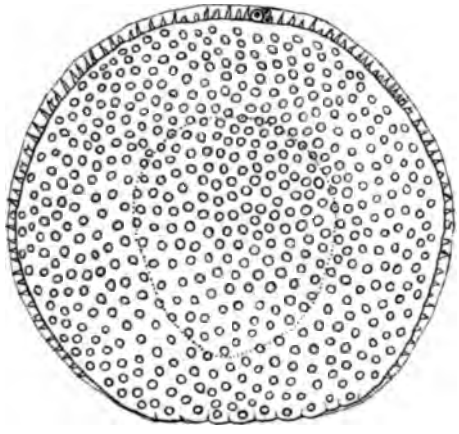

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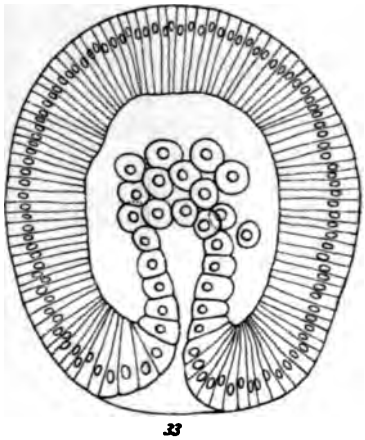

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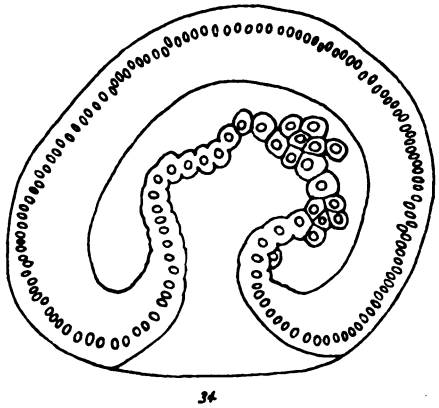

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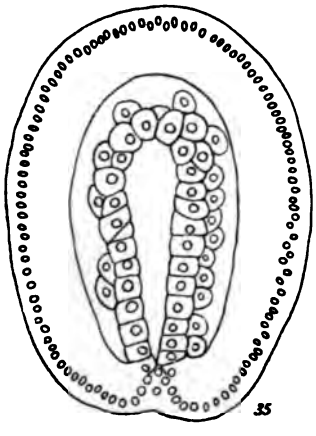

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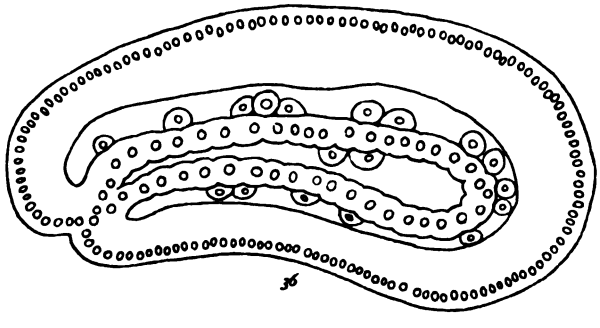

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Centrifugalized eggs.—It has been found by Lyon (1906), Lillie (1906), and Morgan and Lyon (1907), as well as by myself that the substances of the eggs of many animals may be separated into zones by means of strong centrifugal force. When the eggs of *Linerges* are centrifuged immediately after being laid, but little separation of the egg-substances is produced even if they be centrifuged at the relatively rapid rate of 12,000 revolutions per minute for 2 minutes. In later stages (just before and after the first cleavage) the substances of the egg separate much more readily.

Fertilized eggs in the stages just before and after the first cleavage when centrifuged for 1 minute at the rate of 10,000 revolutions per minute remain unaltered in structure and subsequently develop normally. If the same eggs are centrifuged at the same rate for 2 minutes the substances of the egg are separated into a clear, a blue, and a yellow zone, of which the first is the lightest and the last the heaviest. Many such eggs are evidently killed or so injured that they do not develop further, one such being shown in figure 38; others undergo irregular cleavages, which show abnormal distribution of these oöplasmic substances. In some cases irregular planulæ are formed, with an abnormal distribution of the egg-substances, and these may live and swim about for at least 24 hours. For example, in one case the clear substances formed a prominence on one side of the larva, while the remainder of the planula was blue or bluish-yellow. Whether such a planula would give rise to a normal scyphistoma was not determined, since the larvæ were not reared to this stage. And this leads me to remark that in an organism in which there are so few differentiated parts as in a planula it is practically impossible to determine with certainty whether experiments on the egg have modified its potency; only the study of later and more complicated stages could yield conclusive evidence on this point.

CONCLUSIONS.

The organization of the egg of Linerges.—The differentiations of the egg are limited to polarity and to the existence of concentric layers of differentiated oöplasm. Polarity is clearly marked in the egg before maturation, and as in practically all other animals the maturation pole becomes the aboral or ectodermal pole of the gastrula and planula, while the opposite pole of the egg becomes the oral or endodermal pole.

The egg and embryo are radially symmetrical. The cleavages are approximately equal and synchronous, and the earliest differentiation of the cleavage cells consists in the appearance of the rounded endoderm cells at the vegetal pole, while the ectoderm cells are long and narrow, forming a columnar epithelium (figs. 31–34).

Of the different concentric layers of oöplasm, the peripheral one is nearly free from yolk, and is slightly thicker at the animal pole than elsewhere. It becomes the peripheral layer of the blastula and gastrula and gives rise to the cilia which clothe the ectoderm.

Beneath the peripheral layer is a layer of closely crowded yolk spherules in which the nuclei lie during the early and late cleavages; this yolk-rich layer constitutes the principal part of all the cells of the blastula and gastrula.

The central area of the egg contains scattered yolk spherules within a semi-fluid yolk or matrix. During the cleavage this matrix is poured into the cleavage cavity, where it seems to serve as a kind of fluid yolk for the nourishment of the surrounding cells. *The central area of the egg is thus the precursor of the cleavage cavity and its contents.*

The view expressed in my preliminary note on the development of *Linerges* (1906), that the 3 layers of the egg give rise to the ectoderm, the endoderm, and the mesoglœa is not confirmed by further study. Portions of each of these 3 layers are found in all the cells of the blastula and gastrula, and consequently in both ectoderm and endoderm; therefore these substances are not organ-forming with respect to the germinal layers. Nevertheless, each of these substances, under normal conditions, produces a specific part of the embryo. The fact that parts of the unsegmented egg or isolated blastomeres may give rise to entire planulæ may be due to the fact that such parts or blastomeres contain the oöplasmic substances of all of these 3 layers, owing to the concentric arrangement of these substances. It is not easy to isolate these substances and observe the development of each, for although they may be more or less completely separated by strong centrifugal force, they do not, in most cases, undergo further development; and the more completely these substances are separated the less capable they are of development. Nevertheless, as far as my experiments go they indicate that these oöplasmic substances are not individually totipotent.

Mechanics of cell-division.—The peculiar form of cell-division found among cœlenterates has attracted much attention. Ziegler (1898, 1903), Rhumbler (1899), and Fischel (1898, 1906) have dealt with this problem in a comprehensive manner. In brief, Ziegler holds that cell-division is brought about by the activity of the outer protoplasmic layer, the unilateral constriction being due to a heaping up of this layer to form a "cleavage head" at the animal pole; this heaping up he regards as the result of the action at a distance ("Fernwirkung") of the centrosome. Rhumbler also finds the cause of unilateral constriction in the heaping up of the peripheral layer in the cleavage head, due to the astral rays, and in the increased membrane formation in the plane of cleavage, due to the escaped nuclear substances which lie in this plane. Fischel believes that the cleavage is explicable on the assumption that the astral rays are contractile threads, and that the unilateral constriction is due chiefly to the peripheral position of the nucleus and centrosome.

In the case of *Linerges* a glance at figure 6, and the photomicrographs 38 and 42 shows that while the nuclei and centrosomes lie near the animal pole of the egg they do not lie in the peripheral layer of protoplasm. Furthermore,

these nuclei are no nearer the periphery than in the case of many other eggs (mollusks, annelids, etc.) in which unilateral constriction does not occur. Again, the heaping up of the protoplasm at the animal pole is by no means as great as in many other animals, such as the annelids and mollusks, in which unilateral constriction does not take place. Therefore, the cause of the peculiar form of cell-division found in the early cleavage of the egg of *Linerges* and other cœlenterates is not satisfactorily explained by any of these hypotheses.

In most animals the cleavage of the egg begins at the animal pole, where the protoplasm is most abundant, and the cleavage-furrow then extends around the egg and gradually cuts in from all sides toward the center. In such cases the center of the egg is quite as firm as is the periphery. On the other hand, the center of the egg is less firm in some cœlenterates (perhaps in all) than is the periphery, and it seems probable that the unilateral constriction in the division of these eggs is partly due to this condition; for after the furrow has cut through the peripheral layers to the more fluid central area it would then progress rapidly toward the vegetal pole. This type of cleavage prevails during the first, second, and third cleavages, in fact as long as the more fluid central area is present, but with the disappearance of this area in the formation of the cleavage cavity and its contents, this type of cleavage disappears, and the ordinary type thereafter occurs. Taken in conjunction with the heaping up of the peripheral layer at the animal pole, this is, I believe, an explanation of the unilateral type of constriction of the eggs of cœlenterates.

In conclusion, I desire to express my thanks to the Carnegie Institution of Washington and to Dr. Alfred G. Mayer, Director of the Tortugas Laboratory, for the generous assistance given me while a guest of the Laboratory.

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DESCRIPTION OF PLATES.

All the figures of plates 1 to 6 represent entire eggs of *Linerges mercurius*, either drawn in the living condition or stained and mounted entire. They were drawn with the aid of the camera lucida under Zeiss apochromatic obj. 8 mm., oc. 6, at table level; in the process of reproduction they were reduced about one-third, so that as they now appear they represent a magnification of about 230 diameters. Plates 7 and 8 are photomicrographs of sections, magnified about 175 diameters.

PLATE 1.

FIGS. 1, 2. Eggs before maturation, showing the peripheral position of the large germinal vesicle.

FIG. 3. First maturation division; the maturation spindle is extremely small and apparently without centrosomes or astral rays; at the vegetal pole is a lobe of clear protoplasm which may represent the "yolk lobe" of other animals. The peripheral layer of clear protoplasm is marked off from the deeper-lying substances of the egg by the crenated line and the spherules, which represent yolk.

FIG. 4. Second maturation division; the spindle is here smaller than in the first division; within a clear area at the vegetal pole a chromatic body is found which probably represents the sperm-head.

FIG. 5. Egg showing the two germ nuclei side by side.

FIG. 6. Anaphase of the first cleavage-spindle, showing the asters, chromosomal vesicles, and connecting fibers.

PLATE 2.

FIG. 7. Appearance of cleavage furrow and "cleavage-head" at the animal pole; each of the daughter nuclei consists of two parts, the gonomeres.

FIGS. 8, 9. Further stages in the formation of the first cleavage furrow by unilateral constriction.

FIGS. 10, 11. Eggs in which the cleavage head turns to one side after reaching the vegetal pole.

FIG. 12. Egg viewed from the vegetal pole, showing the connecting strand between the two blastomeres.

PLATE 3.

FIG. 13. Egg showing the cleavage head turned still farther to one side.

FIG. 14. 2-cell stage from the animal pole, showing the blastomeres flattened against each other.

FIGS. 15–18. Successive stages in the formation of the second cleavage-furrow, showing the cleavage-head advancing from the center of the egg toward the periphery.

PLATE 4.

FIG. 19. Side view of fig. 18, in the line of the first cleavage, showing the arched condition of the egg at the animal pole and its flat appearance at the vegetal pole; the outlines of the four blastomeres are shown at the animal pole, but the cleavage-furrow has not yet reached the periphery, and hence the daughter cells are still held together here by the connecting strand.

FIG. 20. Side view of an egg at the close of the second cleavage, seen in the line of that cleavage; the connecting strands between the daughter cells are shown near the vegetal pole.

FIG. 21. 8-cell stage; side view of an egg at the close of the third cleavage, showing at the periphery the connecting strands between daughter cells.

FIGS. 22–24. Eggs showing irregular cleavage, due chiefly to the suppression of the division of the cell bodies; fig. 24 shows the nuclei and the appearance of the delayed cleavages in some of the cells.

PLATE 5.

FIGS. 25–27. Successive stages in the cleavage of the same egg; fig. 25, 8 cells; fig. 26, 16 cells; fig. 27, 32 cells; the daughter cells are connected by arrows.
FIG. 28. Stage transitional between 32 and 64 cells; every cell shows a nucleus in some stage of mitotic division.
FIG. 29. 64-cell stage, showing (in dotted outline) the enlarging cleavage cavity.
FIG. 30. 128-cell stage, showing the cleavage cavity much enlarged.

PLATE 6.

FIG. 31. Stage of about 500 cells, showing the rounded endoderm cells at the vegetal pole; the cleavage cavity is eccentric toward this pole; several of the cells are dividing by mitosis.
FIG. 32. Stage of about 1,000 cells, showing the appearance of pseudopod-like processes from the ectoplasm, which later become cilia.
FIGS. 33, 34. Optical sections of gastrulæ, showing gastrula invagination, rounded endoderm, and mesoglœa cells, and the high columnar ectoderm cells.
FIG. 35. Optical section of a stage after the closure of the blastopore.
FIG. 36. Optical section of an elongated planula.

PLATE 7.

FIG. 37. Photomicrograph of egg after the formation of the polar bodies, showing the thin peripheral layer of protoplasm, the dense layer of yolk, and the central more fluid area.
FIG. 38. Egg centrifugalized for 1 minute at 12,000 revolutions per minute, and fixed in Flemming's fluid 6 hours later. The clear protoplasm is aggregated chiefly at the animal pole; the germ nuclei are large clear vesicles which have not undergone division; the central area is still less dense than the peripheral yolk layer.
FIG. 39. Normal egg, showing the germ nuclei in contact near the animal pole, and the substances of the egg arranged as in fig. 37.
FIGS. 40–42. Successive stages in the first cleavage of the egg, showing the furrow cutting into the central area and the formation of the cleavage cavity; one or both of the nuclei of the two cells show in all the figures.
FIG. 43. Oblique section through an egg at the close of the first cleavage, showing the cleavage cavity filled with the central matrix of the egg.
FIG. 44. Vertical section of an 8-cell stage, showing the contents of the cleavage cavity escaping at the vegetal pole.

PLATE 8.

FIG. 45. Horizontal section of an 8-cell stage, showing the mitotic spindles for the fourth cleavage; the blastomeres are partially torn apart.
FIG. 46. Section through a 32-cell stage, showing mitotic figures in some of the cells; these figures are surrounded by small, deeply-stained spherules.
FIGS. 47, 48. Vertical sections through blastulæ at the beginning of invagination; nuclei are shown in many of the cells; the cleavage cavity is greatly enlarged and its contents stain less deeply than in previous stages.
FIG. 49. Invaginate gastrula, showing the thin-walled endoderm and the thick-walled ectoderm, together with blastocœl, gastrocœl, and blastopore; in the ectoderm the cells are faintly indicated by the vertical rows of yolk spherules.
FIG. 50. Longitudinal section through a planula, showing ectoderm, endoderm, and three invaginations of ectoderm into the blastocœl; the cells of these ectodermal invaginations are quite unlike the endoderm cells, while they closely resemble those of the ectoderm.

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VII. TWO PECULIAR ACTINIAN LARVÆ FROM TORTUGAS, FLORIDA.

BY EDWIN G. CONKLIN,
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4 plates, 5 text figures.

TWO PECULIAR ACTINIAN LARVÆ FROM TORTUGAS, FLORIDA.

By Edwin G. Conklin.

During a residence of about three weeks at the Marine Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington at Tortugas, Florida, in April and May, 1905, some peculiar actinian larvæ belonging to two different types were several times taken in the tow. These larvæ were usually taken toward the middle of the day, rarely in the morning or evening, which fact suggests that they come to the surface during the brightest part of the day and again sink to greater depths when the light becomes faint.

Several of these larvæ were kept during the whole of my stay at Tortugas, and Dr. Mayer, director of the station, kindly reared them and collected other specimens for me after my departure, for a further period of six weeks, but during this time no one of them became sedentary or transformed into an adult form. Again, in the summer of 1906, Dr. Mayer collected many of these larvæ and kept them in aquaria for several weeks, but no one of them underwent metamorphosis. Finally, I found these larvæ in considerable abundance at Nassau, Bahamas, in April, 1907. Although some of the individuals were quite large, no one of them had passed the larval stage. They can not, therefore, be definitely referred to any known species of Actinozoan, and although in their structure they show many adult features, they must still be regarded as larval, or at least immature forms.

When first taken these larvæ were wholly unknown to the writer, and indeed, while they were still living it was not certain to which phylum of the animal kingdom they might belong. One type bore a superficial resemblance to an annelid larva, while the other was apparently unique, but when they were killed and prepared for microscopical study it was easy to see that they belonged to the Actinozoa, and that they were immature or larval forms. On my return from Tortugas a consultation of the literature on this group showed that similar forms had been found in various tropical or subtropical seas and that they probably belong to the family of the Zoanthidæ of the order Hexactinia.

The most striking peculiarity of these larvæ is a band of locomotor cilia, which is beautifully iridescent, like the swimming-plates of ctenophores. These cilia are long and extremely numerous, and in living specimens they

seem to adhere into a plate or membrane, as in the case of ctenophores, but after being fixed and sectioned they are frequently found separate.

In one type of larva (fig. 1) this band is longitudinal, extending from the mouth-opening along one side of the body through about two-thirds of its length; the body itself, in this form, is pear-shaped, the mouth being at the narrower end. In the other type (fig. 2) the ciliated band is circular and surrounds the body about the level of the inner end of the pharynx; at this place the body is deeply constricted, the cilia arising from the bottom of this constriction.

The first type was originally described by Semper (1867) and it has since been generally known as "Semper's larva." He found it near the Cape of Good Hope in the Mozambique Channel and on the coast of Java. The second type was also observed by Semper, but was insufficiently described by him and was supposed to be only an earlier stage in the development of the first type.

Subsequently E. Van Beneden (1890, 1898) found two specimens of the first type of these larvæ and one of the second in the material brought back by the Plankton expedition of Hensen; the former came from a region just south of the Cape Verde Islands, the latter from the Guinea Current. Van Beneden pointed out the resemblance of these larvæ to the Zoantheæ (microtype of Erdmann, 1885) in that, in common with this group, these larvæ possess a pair of perfect ventral directives, a pair of imperfect dorsal directives, and between these on each side two pairs of mesenteries, the dorsal member of each pair being perfect and the ventral member imperfect. Van Beneden made a careful study of the morphology and histology of these larvæ, reference to which will be made later. He proposed for these zoanthid larvæ, the adults of which are unknown, the following provisional names: For type I with the longitudinal band of cilia, the generic name *Zoanthella;* for type II with the circular band, the generic name *Zoanthina.*

McMurrich (1891) has also described a larva of this second type, 5 specimens of which were collected by the aid of the surface-net at Beaufort, North Carolina. He was unable to determine the adult form to which this larva belongs, but he agrees with Van Beneden that it is the larval stage of a zoanthid.

Still more recently a somewhat similar form, though showing certain notable differences, has been found and studied at Beaufort by Cary (1904), who reared the larvæ until they transformed into the adult form, which, however, he was unable to identify, although he suggests that it may be some species of the genus *Amophyllactis.*

Finally Heath (1906) has described a larva of type I which was taken near the Galapagos Islands, and which is specifically distinct from the forms described by Semper and Van Beneden. The fact that I have had

for study more specimens than any of the investigators named and that my material was excellently fixed for histological examination has induced me to give a rather detailed description of these peculiar larvæ.

CLASSIFICATION.

As already noted, Van Beneden proposed for these two types of larvæ the generic names *Zoanthella* and *Zoanthina,* with the express statement that these names are to be regarded as provisional and that they are to be dropped as soon as it is possible to refer these larval forms to any known adult actinians. The following are the characters of these genera, according to Van Beneden:

Zoanthella: Pelagic larvæ, attaining a length of 13 mm. Body elongated, provided with a flagellar plate of distinct cilia, or with a vibratile fringe, extending parallel to the axes of the body along the anterior median line. Twelve septa, of which six are macrosepta and six microsepta, disposed as in the Zoanthariæ (microtype of Erdmann). Aboral pore present or absent.

Under this genus Van Beneden recognized two species, viz:

Z. semperi: Body cylindrical, with spiral torsion of median plane and vibratile fringe, the latter running from one pole to the other; body not incurved on ventral side at oral end; with an aboral orifice. Mozambique Current.

Z. henseni: Body elongate pyriform; large end aboral, actinosome terminal at small end; body incurved on ventral side at oral end; no aboral orifice; vibratile fringe in the upper (oral) two-thirds of body, lacking in aboral third. Guinea Current.

To these Heath (1906) has added a third species with these characteristics:

Z. galapagoensis: Body spindle-shaped; ciliated fringe slightly spiral, exposed cilia-bearing portion of fringe of much smaller extent than side in contact with mesoglœa; body not incurved; cilia of fringe not fused into membrane; no aboral pore. Near Galapagos Islands.

In almost every particular the specimens which I obtained at Tortugas and Nassau resemble *Z. henseni;* the only difference of note is that in Van Beneden's specimens the cilia of the vibratile fringe are not closely adherent into a continuous membrane, whereas in my specimens the cilia are intimately connected together in life, though they may be more or less separated after fixation. Inasmuch as Van Beneden had only two preserved specimens for study it seems probable that the separation of cilia may have resulted from the fixation, and that in life the cilia adhere closely together, as in my specimens. The Tortugas and Bahama specimens are, therefore, in all probability, examples of *Z. henseni,* and the fact that they are found in the Gulf Stream as well as in the Guinea Current indicates their very wide distribution.

The characters of the genus *Zoanthina* are indicated by Van Beneden as follows:

Pelagic larvæ, body ovoid in early stages; a circular constriction, bearing flagellæ, divides the body into two unequal parts, an upper smaller part containing the mouth and the pharynx, and a lower larger part; 12 septa are present, 6 macrosepts and 6 microsepts, as in the microtype of Erdmann.

Z. nationalis: Larvæ longer than wide (one with 12 septa measuring 2.2 mm. in length, 2 mm. in width); ciliated furrow very deep; oral part of body attached to aboral by a sort of peduncle; no ectodermal papillæ near the mouth; no canals in mesoglœa; an orifice at aboral pole. Guinea Current.

Z. americana: Larvæ less elongated in the chief axis (one with 12 septa measures 1.4 mm. long, 1.5 mm. wide); ciliated furrow less deep; ectodermal papillæ present near mouth; canals in mesoglœa; no aboral orifice. Beaufort, North Carolina.

It is not possible to determine with certainty whether the specimens from Tortugas belong to either of these species; in fact it is not certain that the specimens obtained by Van Beneden and McMurrich belong to different species. In most regards the Tortugas specimens closely resemble both of these species, though in some respects they are different. From *Z. nationalis* the Tortugas forms differ in having no trace of an aboral pore, and if Van Beneden had not made a careful histological study of this form it might be doubted whether such a pore actually exists. As it is, it is at least possible that such a pore represents an artifact rather than a normal structure. Another difference is found in the length of the actinopharynx; in Van Beneden's specimen it does not extend as far inward as the level of the constriction; in the Tortugas specimens it does. The Tortugas form differs from McMurrich's larva only in the lack of oral papillæ and of large canals in the mesoglœa at the bases of the septa. These differences may be due to the fact that McMurrich's oldest larva was more advanced in development than any I have examined. On the whole, then, there does not seem to be sufficient ground for considering the Tortugas form as the type of a new species. Numerous specimens of *Zoanthina* were taken at Nassau, Bahamas, in April, 1907. Of these there were two different kinds; one, a small yellowish form, identical with the Tortugas species, the other frequently much larger and of a violet color. Many individuals of this latter form were as much as 5 mm. long and 3 mm. in diameter, but no one of them showed any trace of tentacles.

The larva described by Cary (1904) is evidently very distinct from the forms just named, and it is doubtful whether it can be included in the same genus; in this form the circular band consists of bristles instead of cilia, and it forms a ring open at one side instead of a closed one.

This summary shows that these larvæ have been found chiefly on the high seas in the Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian oceans. The specimens taken at Tortugas were virtually from the Gulf Stream, and it is not improbable that those obtained by McMurrich at Beaufort and by myself at Nassau were also from this same ocean current. What the habitat of the adults may be is purely a matter of conjecture.

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Fig. 1. Zoanthella henseni (?), from Tortugas, Fla. Drawn from life by Dr. A. G. Mayer. x10.

Fig. 1a. Photomicrograph of a longitudinal section of this species. The specimen is strongly flexed toward the ventral side, and associated with this is the wrinkling of the body wall at the aboral end of the ciliated band; the body wall is not wrinkled in the region of the band. x10.

Fig. 2. Zoanthina americana (?), from Tortugas, Fla. Drawn from life. x14.

Fig. 2a. Photomicrograph of a longitudinal section of Zoanthina; although the section passes through the middle of the pharynx and cuts the ciliated groove on both sides of the mouth, the ciliated epithelium is shown on one side only. This is the only case observed in which the ciliated ring was incomplete. x75.

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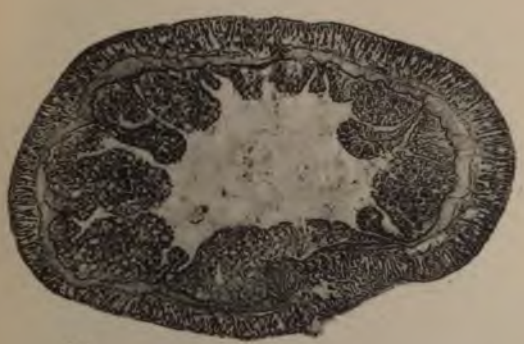

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Transsverse sections of Zoanthella 2 mm. long and 0.5 mm. wide. Photomicrographs by H. G. Kribs, taken with monochromatic blue light, of 448 μ wave-length. x125.

Figs. 3-5. Sections through the region of the pharynx.

Figs. 6-9. Sections in region of ciliated band below the pharynx.

Figs. 10-11. Sections in the aboral region, below ciliated band.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Apparently no one save Semper has studied any of these forms in a living condition. My observations on the living larvæ, although by no means complete, may therefore be of some interest. These larvæ were taken in the surface-net, near the middle of the day, and usually in regions where the water was deep. They are quite hardy and will live indefinitely in small aquaria, though they do not grow in size or undergo metamorphosis, even though they be kept for several weeks.

Zoanthella orients itself so that the blunt aboral pole is directed upward, the pointed oral pole downward, and in this position it swims about near the surface of the aquarium, rotating on its long axis in a clockwise direction, when viewed from the oral pole. Its position and movements in the water are the results of the activity of its ciliated band, the undulations of which may be plainly seen; floating is evidently an active process, for when the cilia cease to beat the animal falls to the bottom. The rotation of the larva on its long axis is evidently due to the fact that the ciliated band runs in a slightly spiral course toward the right (clockwise) when viewed from the oral pole. Although the undulations which run from one end of the ciliated band to the other are slow enough to be easily seen, the beating of the cilia at any one level may be so rapid that the individual cilia can not be seen. Under these circumstances the ciliated band appears hazy and broader at its free edge than at its attached border.

Zoanthina larvæ usually lie on the bottom when brought into small aquaria and are motionless, except for the occasional contraction of the ciliated band. These contractions, due to the simultaneous beating of all the cilia toward the oral pole, are not unlike the pulsations of the bell of a jelly-fish, and are so slow and feeble that they do not serve to move the animal. Occasionally, however, many individuals may be found swimming rapidly near the surface of the water. This happens especially when stale water, in which they have remained for some time, is replaced by pure water. At such times these larvæ assume a conical form, the aboral pole being pointed and the oral pole truncated. The deep groove from which the ciliated band arises lies at the border of this flattened oral area and the band itself beats rapidly and violently, the stroke being toward the oral pole. Undulations or irregular contractions of the ciliated band also occur, running around the band in an anti-clockwise direction, when viewed from the oral pole. The resulting movement is quite rapid, the pointed pole being directed forward and the animal rotating in a clockwise direction when seen from the oral pole. When strongly stimulated *Zoanthina* becomes spherical in shape and the ciliated band disappears within the groove, which closes up.

Although some of the larvæ which I have studied are large and well-developed, no food has ever been found in the cœlenteron; even diatoms and microscopic algæ are lacking. Occasionally fine threads of a coagulum

are found in the cœlenteron, but judging by the considerable number of specimens which I have sectioned I am inclined to believe that solid food is rarely ingested. One of these specimens (figs. 12-18), which was 3.5 mm. long and 1.2 mm. in diameter, after fixation and preservation for a year in alcohol, had no mouth opening, so that it could have taken no solid food, but its considerable size would suggest that it must have grown a good deal beyond the size of the egg. To a considerable extent this growth may be due to the formation of the hollow cœlenteron and to the absorption of water, as Davenport showed to be the case in the early growth of the tadpole, but it is possible that in this case nutriment may be received from another source. In all of these larvæ there are considerable numbers of large round cells with dense nuclei and with yellowish-green granules in the cytoplasm. These are symbiotic algæ, resembling *Zoöxanthella,* and it is quite possible that they play an important part in the nutrition of the larvæ. These algæ occur in both *Zoanthella* and *Zoanthina* and in both the ectoderm and endoderm, though they are more numerous in the latter layer; they also occur in the youngest larvæ, with imperforate mouth, as well as in the oldest ones. The fact that these larvæ are found at the surface at a period of the day when most pelagic larvæ have settled to deeper and darker levels may be associated with the metabolism of this symbiotic alga, and it may be that if these larvæ had been kept in aquaria which were exposed to bright sunlight the later stages in their development might have been secured.

MORPHOLOGY.

Zoanthella.—The general shape of this larva has been sufficiently described already and may be seen in plate 1, figs. 1, 1*a*. The color is a greenish or brownish yellow, mottled with darker spots, and it seems probable that this general color is due, in part, to the large number of *Zoöxanthellæ* present in the body-walls. The size of the larvæ varies within wide limits, as Van Beneden has remarked, and the size is not in itself a measure of the degree of development. My smallest specimen is 2 mm. long and 0.5 mm. wide (plate 2), but it is much further developed than another specimen 3.5 mm. long and 1.2 mm. wide (plate 3). The largest specimen which I have measured is 8 mm. long and 2 mm. wide after having been fixed and cut into longitudinal sections. Many specimens were sectioned without having been measured, and accurate measurements of these can not now be given, but their relative sizes may be determined by the number of sections in each series, since the sections are of uniform thickness; these vary from 250 to 600 in number.

In none of the larvæ which I have seen is there any trace of tentacles or oral papillæ. In *Zoanthella* the mouth and actinopharynx is formed at a relatively late stage. In the larva, 3.5 mm. long, shown in plate 3, the pharynx has just begun to invaginate and the mouth is still imperforate,

although all of the macrosepta are well-developed and the microsepta are already present. In the oldest of these larvæ, 8 mm. in length, the pharynx is only 1.1 mm. long. In cross-section the pharynx of *Zoanthella* is quadrilateral in shape, the four sides of the quadrilateral being incurved toward the center (plate 2, fig. 3). The longitudinal plications of the walls of the pharynx correspond in position to the primary septa (macrosepta) and below the pharynx these plications are directly continuous with the mesenterial filaments of these septa (plate 3, figs. 4–6).

The septa consist of three pairs of macrosepta and three of microsepta, and, as Van Beneden has shown, their arrangement and sequence corresponds to that of the Zoantheæ (microtype of Erdmann), *i. e.*, the dorsal directives are imperfect, the ventral are perfect, and of the two remaining pairs on each side the dorsal member of each pair is perfect and the ventral one imperfect. Van Beneden holds that the order of appearance of the septa, as judged by their size, is for the macrosepta: 1, lateral; 2, dorsal; 3, ventral; and for the microsepta: 4, dorso-lateral; 5, ventro-lateral; 6, dorsal directives. In the youngest *Zoanthella* which I have sectioned the dorsal macrosepta are smaller than either of the other pairs (plates 2 and 3), and judged by the standard hitherto used they are the last-formed of the macrosepta. Three pairs of microsepta are present in these youngest larvæ and they are all about equal in size.

The macrosepta are triangular in cross-section, as shown in plates 3 and 4 and text-fig. 4, the base of the triangle lying at the central border of the septum. To this thickened central border the cylindrical mesenterial filaments are attached. A similar condition was observed by Heath in *Zoanthella galapagoensis,* but Van Beneden does not figure or describe it in the other species of this genus.

In the interspaces between macrosepts and microsepts are endodermal thickenings, which are sometimes as prominent as the septa themselves. These thickenings consist of vacuolated endoderm cells and in the younger larvæ (plate 3) they fill up a large part of the cavity of the cœlenteron, especially at the aboral end; in the older larvæ (text-fig.) they are much less voluminous, probably representing the remains of the primitive endoderm which, in earlier stages, filled the entire enteron.

Zoanthina.—The shape of this larva varies greatly with different stages of contraction; it may be elongated as shown in plate 1, figure 2, or contracted so that the oral-aboral axis is no longer than the transverse one (plate 1, fig. 2*a*, text-fig. 1). In some specimens the oral portion of the body, in front of the ciliated band, is relatively much larger than in the specimen represented in plate 1, figure 2. In general this larva is shorter and stouter than *Zoanthella.* In color it resembles the latter, being of a light brownish-yellow, mottled with darker spots; some of the Nassau specimens are of a violet tint. My smallest specimen of this genus is about 1 mm. long and 1.2

mm. wide, while the largest is 4.3 mm. long and 2 mm. wide. These measurements were made on material which had been preserved in alcohol for a year.

In all of my specimens of *Zoanthina* the mouth and pharynx are fully formed and the size of the septa and absence of the endodermal thickenings between the septa indicate that these larvæ are more advanced in develop-

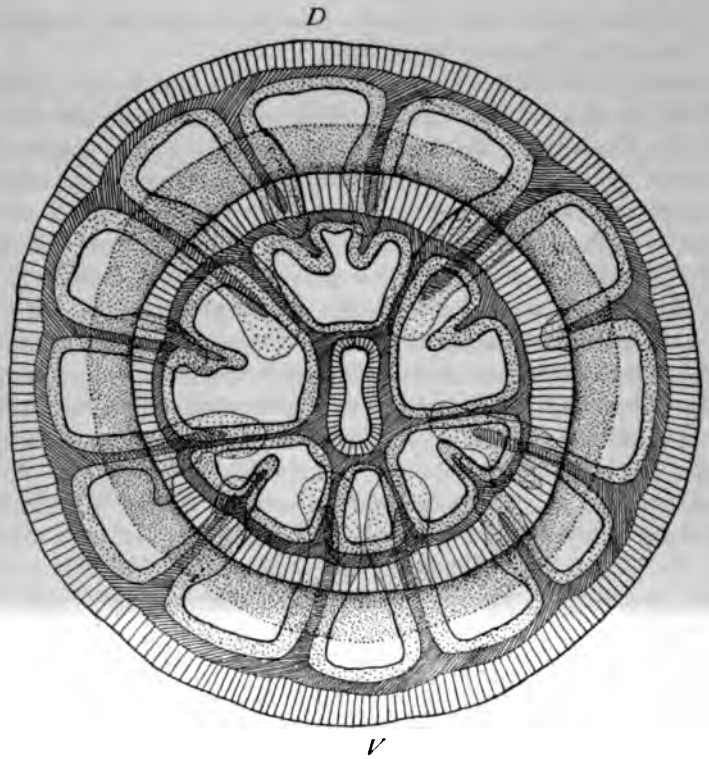

FIG. 1.—Entire specimen of *Zoanthina*, viewed from oral pole; specimen stained and mounted in balsam. Ectoderm shaded by radial lines, mesoglœa by oblique lines, and endoderm by light stippling; ciliated groove deeply stippled.

ment than those of *Zoanthella* which I have studied. The mouth-opening is round in outline, but the pharynx is compressed laterally, as shown in text-figure 1. In this genus the pharynx extends inward at least as far as the circular constriction, about one-third the length of the entire body (plate 1, fig. 2*a*). The walls of the pharynx are thrown into longitudinal plications, which become continuous with the mesenterial filaments of the macrosepta (plate 4), as in *Zoanthella*.

The septa are relatively larger than in *Zoanthella*, and this is especially true of the microsepta, but Van Beneden holds that their arrangement and order of appearance are the same in the two genera, *i. e.*, the dorsal direct-

ives are imperfect, the ventral are perfect, and of the two remaining pairs on each side the dorsal member of each pair is perfect and the ventral one imperfect, while the order of appearance is, for the macrosepta, 1, lateral; 2, dorsal; 3, ventral; and for the microsepta, 4, dorso-lateral; 5, ventro-lateral; 6, dorsal directives.

McMurrich agrees with Van Beneden that the arrangement of the septa of *Zoanthina* is characteristic of the *Zoantheæ,* but he suggests that the sequence observed by Van Beneden is really due to the retardation of the development of the dorsal directives, which should, according to his view, stand fourth in the order of development.

In all my sections of *Zoanthina* the dorsal directives are smaller than the other microsepta (text-fig. 1 and figs. 24, 25), and if the order of appearance is to be judged by the relative sizes of the septa, the dorsal directives are the last to appear of these 6 pairs. Therefore, my observations as to the sequence of the septa in *Zoanthina* agree with the conclusions of Van Beneden.

The individual septa are not triangular in cross-section, as in *Zoanthella;* on the contrary they are nearly as wide at the base as at the free border, and they all show a greater thickening on one side of the mesoglœa than on the other (figs. 24, 25 and text-fig. 1). In the ventral and dorsal directives these thickenings face the median plane, in the laterals and ventro-laterals they face the ventral side, in the dorso-laterals and dorsals they face the dorsal side.

Although the microsepta are well-developed, the macrosepta only are united to the pharynx (fig. 21). Van Beneden found that the septa in the oral and aboral portions of the body were not continuous through the region of the constriction. In the Tortugas specimens the septa are small in this region, but they are not interrupted (figs. 22 and 23). Sections through the outer fold of the ciliated groove show the presence of 12 pockets, formed by the 12 septa (fig. 23).

HISTOLOGY.

In most respects the histological character of these two types of larvæ is similar, though there are certain minor differences.

Ectoderm.—The ectoderm consists of greatly elongated cells, among which are numerous cell-spaces. At the free border of the epithelium no cell-spaces are visible and the cells are here more darkly stained than at deeper levels. The inner ends of the cells are narrow and apparently few of them run through the entire epithelium from the free border to the mesoglœa. Among the epithelial cells are nematocysts of two types, smaller ones which lie near the surface, in fact with one end of the nematocyst at the free border of the epithelium, and much larger ones which lie at a deeper level. In text-figure 2, which is a section through the ectoderm and mesoglœa of *Zoanthella,* both kinds of nematocysts are shown and at the base of

the epithelium near the left side of the figure is a nematoblast from which the larger type of nematocysts is formed.

Two types of gland-cells are also to be found in the ectoderm; one of these consists of elongated fusiform cells containing many small granules

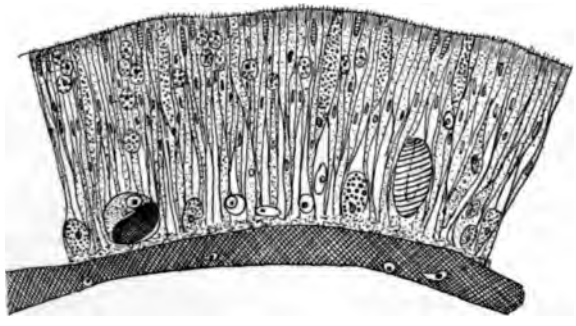

FIG. 2.—Section through body-wall of *Zoanthella*, showing character of ectoderm and mesogloea. × 333.

and lying with the outer end near the free border of the epithelium; the other type consists of rounded cells containing larger granules lying at the base of the epithelium; these cell granules stain intensely with plasma stains (text-fig. 2). In *Zoanthina* there are gland-cells which stain intensely with nuclear stains and which constitute a third type (text-fig. 5).

Other cellular elements of the ectoderm are the Zoöxanthellæ, which are especially abundant in *Zoanthella;* these are small round cells with dense nuclei and with yellowish or greenish chromatophores. They are found most abundantly in the outer portion of the ectoderm.

At the base of the epithelium and adjoining the mesoglœa is a layer of fine fibrils which run in all directions and which consequently appear in sections as fine dots or short fibers. These are probably the fibrillar bases of the epithelial cells.

The description just given applies to the general ectoderm of the larvæ. In the region of the ciliated band this epithelium is remarkably altered. The nematocysts and gland-cells are here lacking, while the ordinary ectoderm cells are replaced by exceedingly slender elongated cells (text-fig. 3). The nuclei of these cells lie in the deeper part of the epithelium, while the cell-bodies consist of slender filaments which are continued from the nuclei to the periphery of the epithelium and then into long flagellæ, which constitute the vibratile band. The free border of the epithelium is marked by a faint line. It seems probable that this line marks a plane along which the various cell filaments fuse together. The filaments are apparently as numerous within the epithelium as without it and they are more numerous and more powerfully developed than in any other epithelium I have ever seen. At the base of this ciliated epithelium are a few rounded cells, some of which

are plainly zoöxanthellæ, and between the nuclei of the ciliated cells and the mesoglœa is a finely granular or fibrillar layer, which resembles the fibrillar layer at the base of the ordinary epithelium. The boundary between the ciliated plate and the ordinary ectoderm is sharp and distinct and there are apparently no transitional cells between the two. The ordinary epithelium does not overgrow the ciliated band at its margins as in the case of *Zoanthella galapagoensis*. In the latter species the ciliated cells are much longer, as compared with the ordinary ectoderm, than in the Tortugas species.

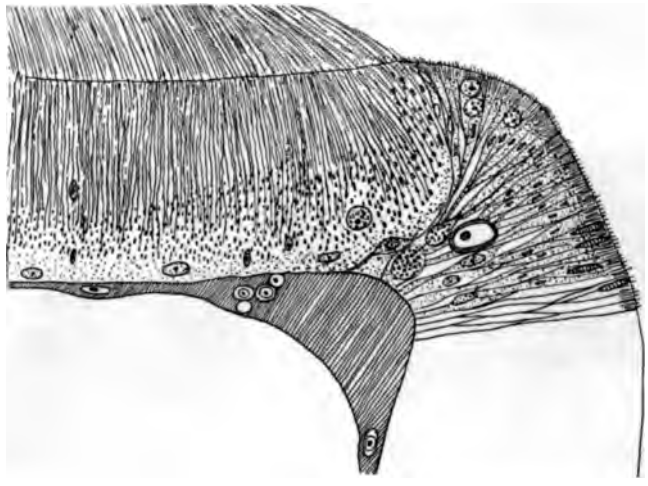

FIG. 3.—Section through ciliated band and adjoining ectoderm of *Zoanthella*. Flagellated cells extremely long and slender, appearing like masses of spermatozoa; among them a few larger cells, and at base of epithelium is a granular zone. Mesoglœa is very thin beneath ciliated plate, but at edges very thick. × 333.

In *Zoanthina* the ciliated band is circular and of nearly uniform width; in *Zoanthella* it is longitudinal and varies much in width, being widest in the middle and narrower at either end. In some specimens of *Zoanthella* the band is apparently double, being divided along its middle by a line of clear, non-ciliated cells (figs. 13-16). I was at first inclined to the opinion that the forms with the divided band were specifically distinct from those in which it is not divided, but further study makes it probable that this is only an individual variation. A similar splitting of the ciliated plate in its aboral portion was observed by Heath in the Galapagos specimen.

The epithelium of this ciliated band has essentially the same structure in the two types of larvæ. It is characterized by extremely small and compact nuclei, which resemble the heads of spermatozoa, and by very long, slender cell-bodies, every one of which starts from a nucleus and runs as a fibril to the periphery of the epithelium and is then continued into the free

flagellum. The iridescence of the ciliated band is due to the great number of these parallel flagellæ, which diffract light like the lines of a fine grating.

I have not been able to distinguish muscle or nerve cells in the ectoderm, though the basal fibrillar layer may represent processes from one or both of these kinds of cells.

The epithelium of the pharynx is more compact than that of the general ectoderm and it contains a larger number of gland-cells; consequently it stains more deeply than does the general ectoderm.

Endoderm.—With the exception of the mesenterial filaments the endoderm stains less deeply than does the ectoderm and the cell outlines are less distinct. Indeed, the general endoderm consists of a spongy layer in which

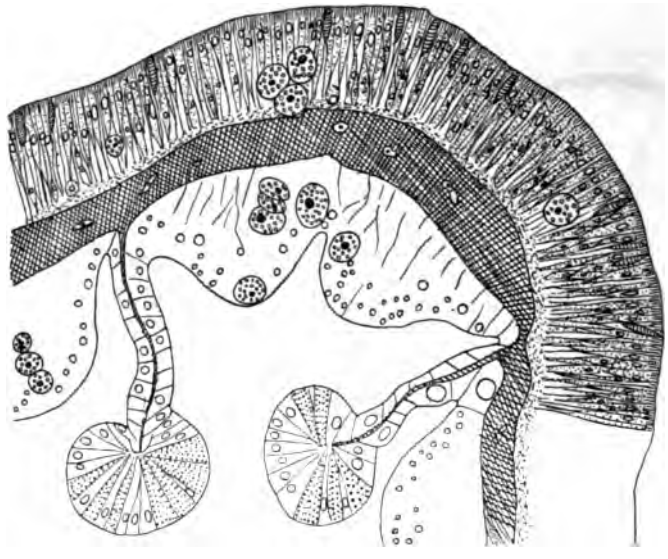

FIG. 4.—Cross-section through body-wall of *Zoanthella,* showing ectoderm, mesoglœa, endoderm, and two septa with mesenterial filaments; the gland-cells of the latter are especially evident. × 333.

are numerous nuclei near the free border, and zoöxanthellæ in the deeper portion of the layer, but in which cell boundaries are not distinct, except close to the free border. In *Zoanthina* the cell boundaries and nuclei are more distinct than in *Zoanthella,* and along the free border they form a definite epithelium, but in the deeper portions of the layer there are few nuclei and no cell outlines save those of the symbiotic algæ, and of a few wandering or amœboid cells (text-figs. 4 and 5).

The mesenterial filaments are rich in gland-cells filled with a granular secretion, while adjoining epithelial cells contain no granules, text-fig. 4.

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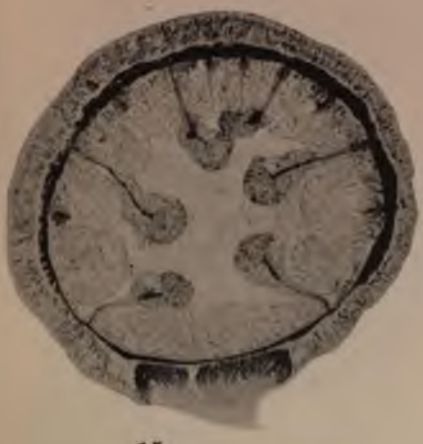

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Transverse sections of Zoanthella 3.5 mm. long and 1.2 mm. wide. Photomicrographs by H. G. Kribs, taken with monochromatic blue light of 448 $\mu\mu$ wave-length. x75.

Fig. 12. Section through the oral region, showing endoderm filling the coelenteron; at this stage the mouth is imperforate and the pharynx has not formed.

Figs. 13-17. Sections through the region of the open coelenteron; the ciliated band is plainly divided down the middle.

Fig. 18. Section through the aboral region, showing the spongy endoderm filling the entire coelenteron. At various places cells are seen in the mesogloea.

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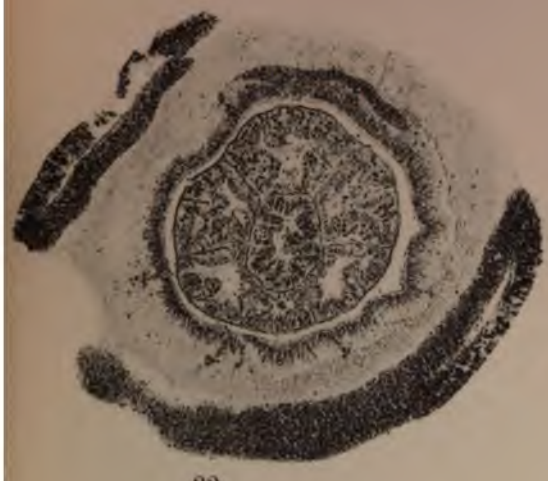

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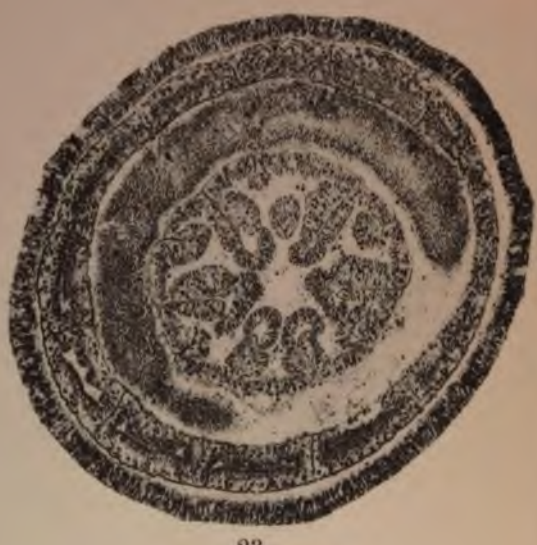

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Transverse sections of Zoanthina americana (?), 1.8 mm. long and 1.2 mm. wide. Photomicrographs by H. G. Kribs, taken with monochromatic blue light of 448 $\mu\mu$ wave-length. x75.

Figs. 19-21. Sections through portion of body on oral side of ciliated groove.

Fig. 22. Section through ciliated groove, showing a portion of the outer wall of the groove.

Fig. 23. Section through deepest part of ciliated groove, showing twelve endodermal pockets in outer wall of groove.

Figs. 24-25. Sections through the aboral part of the body. The endoderm cells contain many small round bodies, the Zoanthellae.

MESOGLŒA.

The mesoglœa is generally thicker in *Zoanthella* than in *Zoanthina* and varies considerably in thickness in different parts of the same larva. In both types of larvæ it is thickest in the aboral portion of the body and thinnest beneath the ciliated band. The extreme thinness of the supporting lamella in the region of the ciliated band as contrasted with its thickness elsewhere is well shown in text-figure 3 and in plates 2 and 3. The same figures show that in *Zoanthella* this layer is thinner opposite the point of origin of septa than in the region between septa, while in *Zoanthina* the reverse is true. Cells and canals are found within the mesoglœa in both larvæ, though they are more abundant in *Zoanthella*. There is considerable evi-

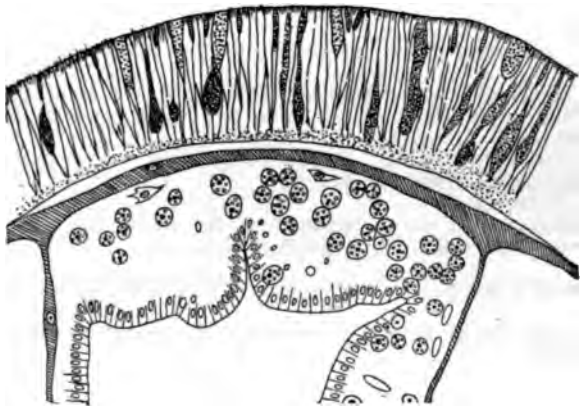

FIG. 5.—Cross-section through body-wall of *Zoanthina*, showing mesoglœa and endoderm. × 333.

dence in favor of the view of Van Beneden that the mesoglœa is in life quite soft and that the cells found in it are wandering cells and the canals merely the tracks of these cells.

In my oldest specimen of *Zoanthina* the mesoglœa in each of the macrosepta is drawn out into many fine branches on the thicker side of the septum, thus giving support to the longitudinal muscles of the septa. In *Zoanthella* the flexure of the body toward the ventral side gives evidence of the presence of strong longitudinal muscles along that side, though I have not been able to distinguish them in my sections. Van Beneden has seen and described these muscles in the specimens which he studied.

In none of the specimens which I have examined were there any embryos within the cœlenteron, such as Van Beneden discovered in *Zoanthina nationalis*. These embryos he shrewdly concludes were merely ingested by an older embryo, while all were contained within a cœlenteron of the viviparous parent. If this is the true explanation of their presence in Van Beneden's specimen, it may be concluded that a more extensive study of the

zoanthinas found at Tortugas will show that some of these contain embryos also. In the oldest of the larvæ which I have examined there is not a trace of germ-cells and they can not therefore be capable of sexual reproduction.

Although these peculiar larvæ have been taken only a few times and then in widely separated parts of the earth; they are certainly not extremely rare, as their abundance at Tortugas and at Nassau shows, and I do not doubt that with the excellent facilities now afforded at the Tortugas Laboratory, some investigator more fortunate than myself will be able to observe their transformation into the adult form, and thus to determine beyond any doubt their systematic position.

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VIII. THE BEHAVIOR OF NODDY AND SOOTY TERNS.

BY JOHN B. WATSON,
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11 plates, 2 text figures.

THE BEHAVIOR OF NODDY AND SOOTY TERNS.

By John B. Watson.

INTRODUCTION.

During the spring of 1907, on the invitation of Prof. Alfred G. Mayer, Director of the Marine Biological Laboratory of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, I spent three months upon Bird Key, a small island belonging to the Dry Tortugas group.[1] The specific object of my stay was to observe as far as possible the details of the lives of the noddy terns (*Anous stolidus*) and the sooty terns (*Sterna fuliginosa*) during their nesting season on that island.

My thanks are due first of all to Professor Mayer for his unfailing kindness in liberally supplying my needs upon the island. Bird Key is uninhabited and is some distance from the key upon which the Biological Station is located. Since I lived upon the island, it was necessary to bring all supplies and apparatus from the laboratory. During this period I was supplied with a motor-boat and a servant. My thanks are likewise due to the Audubon Society, which not only rendered me financial assistance for acting as warden of the island, but also allowed me complete control of the birds. On an island as small as Bird Key it would have been difficult to have carried on the work if my authority had been divided with that of a regular warden.

Mr. Carl Kellner spent many trying hours with me in attempting to photograph the birds in action. Owing to the peculiarities of the climate and to the extreme rapidity of the characteristic movements of the birds, we had scant success in our efforts. Our interest was not so much in obtaining good photographs of the birds, but rather centered around the portrayal of their activities. Many hundreds of photographs were taken, but many of the most interesting exposures, which were often made after hours of waiting, failed to develop properly for one reason or another.

As will be seen by reading the present report, the nature of all the work has been preliminary. Indeed, if I were convinced either that I myself or some one else could immediately take up the work, I should cheerfully delay publication until a fuller account of the activities of the birds could be given. But since the immediate continuation of the work is not assured, and since

[1] In this connection I wish to thank Prof. James R. Angell for arranging for me a three months' leave of absence from the University of Chicago, with which institution I was connected at the time the present research was made.

work of this kind is more or less "impressionistic," the attempt is here made, while the material is still fresh in my mind, to enumerate some of the more important problems to be found in the study of these birds and to set forth my tentative efforts to solve them.

OBSERVATIONS UPON THE INSTINCTS AND HABITS OF TERNS DURING THE NESTING SEASON.

A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE TWO SPECIES OF TERNS.

THE NODDY TERN (ANOUS STOLIDUS).

The noddy tern is described by Saunders,[1] as follows:

Adult Male in Breeding Plumage.—Forehead nearly white at the base of the bill, passing on the crown into lavender-gray, which deepens on the neck into lead color; lores and orbital region black with a faint whitish superciliary streak; upper parts chiefly dark-brown, the primaries, tail feathers, and their shafts nearly black; underparts dark brown on the abdomen and breast, passing into deep lead color on the throat; bill blackish; tarsi and toes reddish-brown, fully webbed, webs ochraceous. Total length about 16 inches, culmen 2.1, wing 10.25 to 11, tail 6 to 7, the fourth feather from the outside the longest, tarsus 1, middle toe with claw 1.55.

Adult Female.—Very similar, but as a rule somewhat browner on the shoulders and with less lead color on the throat, slightly smaller and with a weaker bill.[2]

Hab. Tropical and juxta-tropical America; chiefly on the Atlantic side, but also on the Pacific in Mexico and in the central region; Atlantic down to Tristan da Cunha (breeding); intertropical African and Asian Seas, up to Yeddo; Australasia down to about 35° S.; Islands of the Pacific up to Laysan, etc., and as far as Sala y Gomez, 105° W.; also Chatham I., Galapagos (*fide* Ridgway), but not on the coasts of Peru or Chile. Breeding, as a rule, where found. Once obtained off the south coast of Ireland.

THE SOOTY TERN (STERNA FULIGINOSA).

Rothschild's[3] description of the sooty is as follows:

Adult.—Forehead, sides of head, and entire lower parts, including lower wing coverts, white with a very delicate bluish tinge on the abdomen under wing-coverts and under tail-coverts when the birds are alive or quite fresh. Lores and upper parts, including the hind neck [which is whitish in *H. anaestheta* (Scop)], uniform sooty brown. Primaries black, but the shaft and outer web of the first primary white below, except on the outermost tip. Tail-feathers sooty-black; all the shafts white below, and the shafts of the outer pair, as well as their outer web and basal part of inner web, white. Total length about 17 to 17.5 inches, wing 11.6 to 12, outer rectrices (if not abraded) 7.5 to 8, central pair 3, culmen 1.7 to 1.8, tarsus 0.85. (Specimens from America and Kermadec Islands are exactly similar.) Iris dark-brown, bill and feet black.

Hab. Tropical and juxta-tropical seas, breeding wherever suitable islands and reefs exist; occasionally wandering to Maine in North America, and to Europe, even as far as England. Almost unknown on the South American side of the Pacific; otherwise very generally distributed.

[1] Catalogue of the Birds of the British Museum, vol. xxv, pp. 136–140.

[2] I could not find any difference in appearance between the males and females. The two sexes in life are indistinguishable. This applies to both noddies and sooties.

[3] Avifauna of Laysan, etc., p. 39.

On account of the wide distribution of these two species of birds, of their great numbers, and of their habit of assembling on islands during their nesting season, frequent incidental reference to them is to be found in the writings of naturalists. Saunders gives a fairly complete reference to this literature.

Extended statements concerning the instincts and habits of these birds are not extant. Dr. Thompson[1] gives the most comprehensive statement concerning their habits. His observations, like my own, were made upon Bird Key. The statements in his paper are apparently made upon the basis of intermittent visits to the island and are not always trustworthy. This is not to be wondered at when we consider the complexity of the life of the birds and the limited time which was at Dr. Thompson's disposal.

Descriptive and none too exact statements of the nesting behavior of the birds may be found in Henshaw[2] and in Rothschild.[3] In the latter, most of the observations were made by the naturalist Palmer. The work of Walter K. Fisher[4] is especially worthy of mention.

The above references bear only in a general way upon my own studies. In many cases, the observations to be found in them do not agree with my own. I am not able to account for these discrepancies. The account of the instincts and habits of these birds given here is made largely upon the basis of my own observations.[5]

Nearly all of the statements concerning the habits of these birds, like my own, refer to the nesting season. So far as I know to the contrary, almost nothing is known of their life outside of this period. Many of the reactions during the nesting season could be understood more easily if we knew the complete history of their life-cycle.

GEOGRAPHICAL SITUATION AND HISTORY OF THE PRESENT COLONY OF TERNS.

Bird Key is a small coral island about 300 yards wide (east and west) by 400 yards long (north and south). It is 65.8 statute miles due west from Key West. The island is partially sheltered on the east and on the northeast by a coral reef (fig. 1). Northeast of the island, about 1.125 statute miles distant, stands Fort Jefferson, now practically deserted. Still farther to the northeast other low coral islands are to be found. Loggerhead Key lies

[1] Bird Lore, vol. v, 1903, p. 77 ff.
[2] Birds of the Hawaiian Islands, etc., 1902.
[3] *Op. cit.*
[4] Birds of Laysan and the Leeward Islands, Hawaiian Group. Bull. U. S. Fish Commission, vol. XXIII, 1903, pp. 767–807.
[5] As examples of differences in observations I cite the following: One writer speaks of seeing these terns "swimming in the water." During my three months' stay I never saw one of these birds in the water, except by accident (see fig. 26, plate 10), and then the bird, if the tide is against it, can never reach the shore, so poorly does it swim. Another statement is to the effect that these birds are often seen flying at night at great distances from the shore. My own observation is to the effect that the birds return to the island at night and leave it at daylight.

about 4 statute miles to the west of Bird Key. Immediately outside of these islands is to be found the water of the Gulf of Mexico. The situation of the island shows that it is adequately protected from all but the severest southwest storms. The Tortugas as a whole are rarely subject to heavy storms during the nesting period of the birds. During the past season

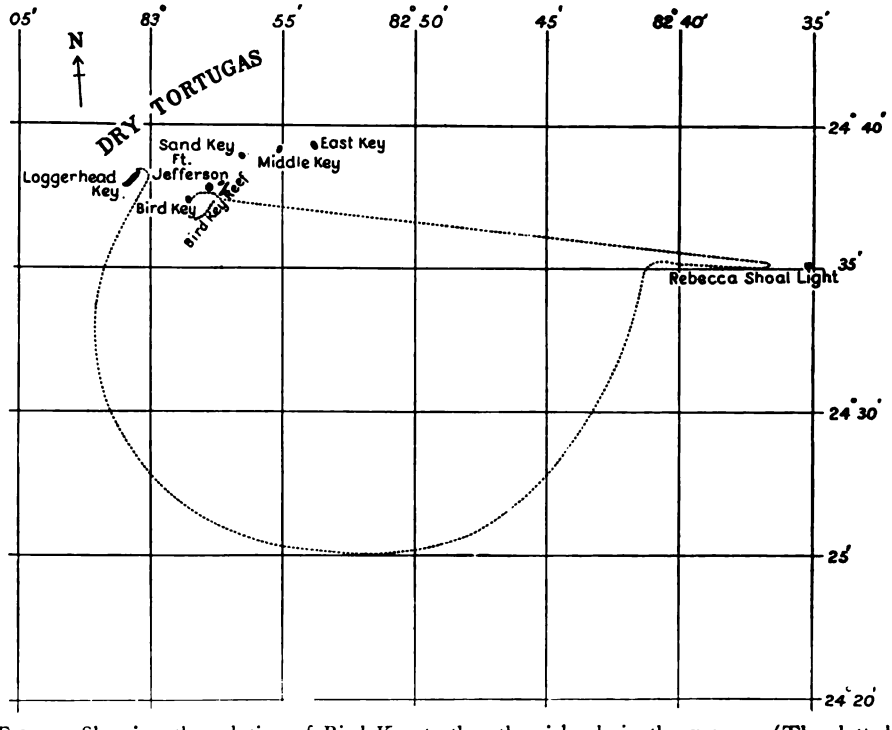

FIG. 1.—Showing the relation of Bird Key to the other islands in the group. (The dotted lines show a launch trip made to determine the feeding habits of the birds.)

(1907) only one severe storm visited the island, and this was not very destructive to the life of the birds.

Owing to its juxta-tropical location, its slight elevation, and the condition of its surface (largely coral sand), the actual surface-temperature of this island is very high, ranging at times during the hottest days from 124° to 143° F.

With the exception of the bay-cedar bushes, which are very abundant upon the central and western parts of this island, little vegetation exists. On a certain limited portion of its surface (southeastern) a dense growth of cactus is to be found. Both cactus and bay-cedars are utilized by the noddies for nesting-places.

No accurate data exist concerning the number of years these two species have migrated to this island for the purpose of rearing their young. The oldest inhabitants of the neighborhood say that as long as they can remember

Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

Nesting attitudes of Sooties.

the birds have been going there year after year. The terns arrive at approximately the same time each year (during the last week in April), live there until toward the first of September, and then begin their southern migration.

FOOD AND FEEDING HABITS OF THE TERNS.

In a locality where marine forms are so abundant as in this favored Gulf region, the terns collect their food with little difficulty. They feed upon small fish of different kinds, which are present in great abundance.[1] I have searched in the literature for statements concerning the methods utilized by these terns in catching their fish, but I was nowhere able to find any statements of value concerning this. I made a careful study of the water habits of these birds. To my great surprise, I found that the birds never swim nor dive. As a matter of fact, they never touch the water except when drinking or bathing. The bird drinks the sea-water as it skims the surface of the water with open beak. Bathing they perform in much the same way, never coming to a stop in the water nor completely immersing the body; usually the breast and head are the only parts dipped into the water.

The birds fish by following schools of minnows which are being attacked by larger fish. The minnow, in its efforts to escape, jumps out of the water and skims the surface for a short distance. The terns pick off these minnows as they hop up above and over the surface of the water. The rapidity and accuracy of visual-motor adjustment in this reaction is wonderful.

The birds feed singly or in groups, usually in groups. The group may be composed of both noddies and sooties and may contain sometimes as many as 50 to 100 individuals. All during the day groups of noddies and sooties may be seen at work. As the minnows cease to jump above the surface of the water, the group disbands and scatters in every direction. An instant later, as an attack is made upon the minnows in some other locality, the birds immediately rush there and renew their feeding. Whether there is a true following instinct at hand in this reaction can not be stated, but when one considers that such an instinct is probably present in the sunning reaction (which will be described presently) one feels justified in assuming that the act of feeding in groups is likewise a sign of gregariousness.

In view of my experiments upon the function of distant orientation in these birds, it became very necessary to ascertain when the birds leave the island, how far they go, and when they return. Taking up these questions in order, I suggest the following probable answers: Both species of birds leave the island at early daybreak. In order to observe this more accurately, I rowed out from the island at 3 o'clock in the morning to a distance of 1.5 knots. No birds were seen on their way to feed until daylight began to appear. From that time they appeared in ever-increasing numbers—noddies

[1] Examination of the stomach contents of both young noddies and sooties showed the presence of representatives of the two families of fish Casangidæ and Clupeidæ.

and sooties leaving the island singly and in small groups. They apparently continue their flight until the jumping schools of small fish meet their eye. This may happen soon or late; consequently they may feed near the island or far away.

Apparently, at the end of 2 hours the noddy has supplied its needs, for at this time it returns to the island and relieves its mate at the nest. The latter then comes out upon the water and takes, roughly, a two-hour turn at fishing, then likewise returns to the nest. This routine of spending 2 hours at the nest and 2 hours on the water is engaged in by all of the noddies during the seasons of brooding and of rearing the young (see p. 206). Before the egg is laid, however, the male does the fishing for both himself and the female at intervals which I could not determine. The male sooty, on the other hand, as will be shown later, during the laying and brooding season probably stays out upon the water all day long, returning at nightfall during the former season to feed the female, and during the latter season to take his turn at brooding the egg (see p. 209).

I was especially anxious to determine the distance to which the terns go for their food. I have the following observations to report bearing upon this subject: So far as I could learn from questioning the residents at Key West, 65.8 statute miles to the east, these birds never venture as far as that for food. The lighthouse-keeper at Rebecca Shoal Light,[1] 17 knots distant from Bird Key (east), tells me that he has never seen either of these species of birds fishing in that locality. He reports that on sunny days pelicans, frigate-birds, cormorants, boobies, etc., appear there in large numbers. I am inclined to think that his statements with respect to the terns are correct. Both on approaching Bird Key from the east and upon leaving it to the west, I was not able to observe these birds feeding farther out that 4 to 10 knots. As a final test in the matter I made a trip, with the assistance of Mr. Kellner and Mr. Hooker, in the laboratory launch. The chart is shown by the dotted lines in figure 1. We left Bird Key at 8^h 30^m in the morning and journeyed in a straight line almost to Rebecca Shoal Light. The birds were seen fishing in numbers until a distance of 9 or 10 knots had been traversed, after which fewer and fewer birds were sighted. From 13 knots on to 15 no birds were sighted. At this point we stopped and waited for an hour. No birds appeared. In returning to the island, we partially retraced our path and then turned toward the south and steered in a circle, keeping Bird Key within about 10 knots. On the return trip, 20 birds were counted before we began to circle the island. Just as the turn was made to the south, three large groups were seen feeding, and from that point on the birds were numerous.

From my own observations I conclude that these birds rarely leave the

[1] See fig. 1, p. 192.

island for distances greater than 15 knots. Further observations are sadly needed at this point, specially with reference as to whether the birds may not possibly journey further in other directions than in the easterly one. Also as to whether the birds have to go further during stormy weather in order to obtain their food. At all of the above distances, the lighthouse on Loggerhead Key, 160 feet in height, could be "sighted" by the birds at the elevation at which they fly.

From other observations, too numerous to mention separately, I conclude that all birds return to the island at night. Many times just at sundown I have come from Loggerhead Key to Bird Key. The terns are coming in by hundreds and thousands, flying low over the water. By the time twilight has faded the water is entirely deserted. Several trips made to Fort Jefferson late at night showed that these birds do not leave the island at night. The moment the island is reached, however, no matter at what hour of the night, one finds the sooties busily flying from one place to another on it.

While I made these observations as carefully as I could, I realize that conclusive deductions can not be made until a more extended study has been undertaken.

THE MATING OF THE NODDIES AND OF THE SOOTIES.

According to Thompson,[1] both species mate before reaching the island. Whether or not this statement is true can not be answered from my own observation. I did not begin my work upon the birds until May 4. Since they reached the island upon April 29, I could not observe their early behavior. But as I arrived only 5 days later than the birds[2] and found both species actively engaged in nest-building and some beginning to lay,[3] it seems quite clear that mating is either a very simple process, requiring little time, or else it had been accomplished before or during migration. A complete account of mating can scarcely be given until we know more of the life of these birds before their northern migration begins: Are they gregarious previous to it; if so, to what extent? Are the partnerships formed during the mating season kept after the young are reared? What are their habits in feeding and in roosting, etc.? Do their habits change at the approach of the time for migration? What is the length of time for migration? What are their habits during migration (*i. e.*, do they stop on land at intermediate points), etc.?

My notes contain a rather full account of a striking series of reactions between two noddies, which I took to be a case of mating and choice of

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 78.

[2] I am quite sure that I reached the island before many of the birds. Apparently the birds, the sooties at least, arrive in groups stretching over a period of about two weeks.

[3] Two noddy eggs were found May 4, while the sooty eggs were first found on May 7.

nest-site, but since it occurred late in the season and did not lead to a completed nest I advance it tentatively:

One day I observed several noddies "sunning" upon the wire covering of one of my large experimental cages. Suddenly, one of the birds (male) began nodding[1] and bowing to a bird standing near (female). The female gave immediate attention and began efforts to extract fish from the throat of the male. The male would first make efforts to disgorge, then put the tip of the beak almost to the ground and incline it to the angle most suitable to admit her beak. She would then thrust her beak into his (the ordinary feeding reaction). The feeding reaction was alternated with the nodding. After this series of acts had been repeated 20 times, the male flew off and brought a stick. He deposited this near the female and then again offered to feed her. She again tried to feed, then the male attempted sexual relations. She immediately flew away, but almost immediately returned and alighted at a slightly different place. The male again brought the stick and again bowed and offered to feed her. She accepted the food, but again flew away when the male attempted to mount her. At this juncture the island was disturbed and my observations could not continue.

If the above is a genuine case of mating, the process is very simple. It consists in the female's accepting food from the male and engaging in sexual relations with him at a given nest locality. Such a process might well take place *en masse* during the first few hours after the birds alight on the island. I was not fortunate enough to obtain a corresponding set of observations of even this unsatisfactory kind upon the mating of the sooties.

THE CHOICE OF THE NEST-SITE, AND THE MATERIAL USED IN CONSTRUCTION OF THE NEST.

THE NEST OF THE NODDY.

The noddy constructs its nest from (1) loose dead branches of the bay-cedar bushes; (2) of seaweed; (3) of a combination of these; (4) of a combination of either or both of these with various kinds of sea-shells and coral. When the shells and coral are employed, they are often placed as an inner lining to the nest and the egg is deposited directly upon them. The nest itself is a quite variable structure, and usually loosely put together. It is very shallow, and this is rather singular, since the wind often blows the egg or the young to the ground (see figs. 4, 5, 6, and 7, plate 2).

The nests remaining from year to year are utilized by the birds at successive nesting periods; whether or not by the same pair can not with cer-

[1] This nodding reaction is one of the most interesting and ludicrous acts of the noddy tern. It is quite elaborate. Two birds will face each other, one will then bow the head almost to the ground, raise it quickly almost to a vertical position, and then quickly lower it. He will repeat this over and over again with great rapidity. The other bird goes through a similar pantomime. If a stranger bird alights near a group, he salutes those nearest, and is in turn saluted by them. During the pantomime a sound is rarely made.

tainty be answered at present.[1] On account of this utilization of the old nest from year to year, some of the oldest nests have grown to enormous size, due to the addition of new materials at each successive season.

The photograph of the group of nesting noddies (fig. 22, plate 8) shows the tallest of the bay-cedars (about 12 feet) and what I judge to be some of the oldest nests. Figure 5, plate 2, shows a newly constructed nest, which is much smaller.

The statement has been made that the noddy sometimes lays its eggs directly upon the ground, but this is not quite true for noddies on Bird Key.[2] Very often the nest has the appearance of being constructed directly upon the ground, but a closer examination usually shows that it has been built upon a tuft of grass or upon the stem of a bush, the branches of which have been broken off close to the ground. Figure 22, plate 8, shows the characteristic groupings of the nests. It is typical of many localities on the island. Attention is called to the fact that the height of the nests above the surface is quite variable. The noddies apparently do not seek to nest in the thickest parts of the bushes. Although isolated nests are present even where the shrubs are most dense, by far the majority of them are to be found in bushes which border upon open spaces. When we consider the size and delicacy of their wings this fact has biological value in that nests in such situations are easy of access. Apparently there is no instinctive tendency to secrete the nest. The cactus growth contains about 20 per cent of the total number of nests. The nests there do not differ in construction from those found in the bay-cedar bushes.

By means of a mechanical counting device it was found possible actually to count the total number of (active) noddy nests. The count gave 603 nests. In some places, where the bay-cedar bushes are very dense and the area has to be covered "dog fashion" (or at times even still more primitively), and in others where the cactus growth is very luxuriant, error in counting was easily possible. On account of these possibilities of error, I believe that 700 nests is a more representative number. Since 2 birds occupy one nest, we have a total of 1,400 adult noddies on the island.

THE NEST OF THE SOOTY.

The nest of a sooty, when a nest is made, consists of a shallow oval depression in the sand. This depression varies greatly in depth, depending

[1] A test designed to answer this question was made. Before leaving the island, I caught three birds on three separate nests. I marked the nests and placed a platinum band around the legs of the birds. During the nesting season, just past (1908), Dr. Mayer wrote me that he had captured the birds occupying these marked nests and *that none of the birds so captured was marked with the platinum band.* It is recognized that the number of birds tested in this way is too small to afford a basis for generalization.

[2] The nearest approach I found to the laying of the egg upon the bare ground was in the case of two nests built on a bare horizontal board lying among the cactus growth. In each of these cases the egg was laid directly upon the board, but some dozen or two small sticks retained the egg in position.

upon the nature of the surface. It is rarely over 5 cm. in depth, even in loose sand.

The northern and northeastern sections of the island are free from bushes, but are covered by a shallow growth of Bermuda grass. These areas contain by far the largest number of nests. The group photographs of the sooties appended (see especially figure 17, plate 6) are taken at one or the other of these sections. The eggs in these areas are laid literally on the grass and bare earth in no kind of nest structure. The eggs are often deposited in open sandy places, but nest depressions are not always made, even where the nature of the surface easily permits it. A reference to figure 18, plate 6, will show quite clearly the absence of any complex nest-structure.

A rather interesting variation in nest-structure appears among certain nests which are built under the bay-cedar bushes. The leaves from the bushes sometimes form a carpet over the sand. The nesting sooties often gather up these leaves and place them around the rim of the depression. Under no circumstances are the leaves collected from a distance further than the birds can reach with their beaks while remaining in a sitting posture in the nest.

The nests of the sooties are assembled into groups. Roughly speaking, there is a southeastern, a central, a northern, and a northeastern group.

An approximate count of the total number of the sooty nests was made in the following way: Those parts of the surface of the island containing nests were subdivided into ten separate areas. The number of square feet in each area was next determined. The average number of nests (spots where eggs were deposited) per square foot was then determined separately for each area. By means of these data, the total (approximate) number of nests on the island was found to be 9,429. Multiplying by two, as in the previous case, we have 18,858 as the total number of adult sooties. It may be said that the above determination was made late in the brooding season, after all the eggs had been laid. It may also be of interest to note that in localities where the nests are very numerous they often are not more than 10 to 12 inches apart. On account of this close grouping of the nests, and of the quarrelsome nature of the brooding birds, *exact localization of nest* and *recognition of nest and mate* easily became the most important features in the lives of the sooty terns. This situation affords a convenient starting-point for a psychological study of the behavior of these birds. My tentative beginnings in this field are described on pages 221 ff.

REACTIONS OF THE NODDIES OBSERVED IN NEST-BUILDING.

My notes, written during the observations, contain a large amount of material relating to the way in which the noddy and sooty nests are constructed. The greatest difficulty in obtaining accurate notes lies in the fact that in neither of these two species are the differences in visual appearance

between the male and the female marked enough to afford a basis for determining sex. But with close observation, the differences in behavior are so marked, at least during the nest-building and egg-laying stages of the nesting period, that the following statements, which refer to the division of labor between the two sexes, are fairly accurate. Later on in the work, I found that observation was greatly aided by marking one of the birds with oil paint, and then from the behavior of the marked bird record whether it was the male or the female.[1]

On May 11, the following notes were obtained from a pair of noddies at work upon a nest which had been started a few days previous:

Both birds work, bringing sticks, sea-weed, shells, and coral. Both birds shape the nest clumsily by pecking and pulling at the sticks. They never weave the sticks so as to form a compact and durable nest. The stick is dropped on the rim, then drawn into position. Frequently, first one bird, then the other sits in the nest and shapes it. In order to do this the bird rises on its feet and depresses its breast and turns round and round. The material is obtained both far and near. Floating sticks and seaweed are gathered from the water. They frequently alight under the nests of other birds and gather up the fallen branches. They even take the material from other nests which are left momentarily unguarded. Frequent fights ensue. The birds work neither steadily nor rapidly; 10, 15, 20 minutes may elapse before either makes a trip.

On one of the trips the male grasped a large, dead branch which was fast. Another bird came up and also grasped the stick. A fight ensued in which the intruder was worsted. The male next picked up a large stick and attempted to walk out into an open space in order to rise. An obstruction barred the way. The bird, standing on the outside of the barrier, tugged and tugged at the stick, but unavailingly. Finally he stooped under the obstruction, grasped the stick and backed out. This observation is of interest in that it shows a rather wide range of instinctive adaptations. Both birds are busily engaged for the next hour. Then the male leaves, while the female remains sitting on a limb near the nest. Two hours later the male returns and *feeds* the female.[2]

On another occasion in watching the transfer of material from one nest-site to another it was found that one bird did all the work; the other remained sitting on a nearby branch.

Still another observation was made in which it appeared that the male did most of the work. The observation began just after the male had fed the female. The male flies away (4^h 16^m p. m.), but returns with a fine straw at 4^h 18^m. Leaves and returns with straw at 4^h 19^m. Leaves at 4^h 20^m; returns at 4^h 23^m, bringing no material; sits on nest for a moment and preens feathers. Leaves at 4^h 26^m and at 4^h 27^m returns with another straw. Several straws are then brought at intervals of about one minute. On one trip female is sitting in nest. The male returning with straw forces her out, deposits the straw, and shapes the nest. He leaves and returns with a piece of coral. The female then becomes active and brings a small

[1] Sexual behavior gives the most reliable data.
[2] See p. 202 for details.

white shell and deposits it in the nest. This she repeats two or three times. Both birds are active from now on until 5^h 05^m, at which time the male leaves for food. At 7^h 05^m he returns and feeds the female.

The remarkable thing in all of these acts was the accuracy of orientation. Many nests intervened between their own and the open spaces and many other nests were in process of construction in the same bush. The nest was localized with great exactness by each of the two birds at every trip.

Finally, it may be said that the nest-building instinct is not so *transitory* as certain others. All during my stay on the island the noddies were carrying sticks; even those caring for young do not resist the impulse to gather up sticks. All my efforts to get control of their reactions by supplying them with food and water were unavailing, but I could easily induce activity in them by collecting a bundle of twigs and tossing them up in the air. Hardly would the sticks fall before the noddies were after them. A noddy in mid-air carrying a stick and dodging a dozen other birds in order to maintain possession of the prize is one of the most common sights on the island. So active and alert are they on the wing that if a stick is by chance dropped while the bird is in flight, it is often caught before it strikes the earth or the water.

REACTIONS OF THE SOOTIES OBSERVED IN NEST-BUILDING.

The building of the sooty nest is quickly accomplished. The obtaining of a nest-site is the difficult part of the reaction. As has been said, the sooties build their nests very near one another. For this reason it is extremely difficult to make complete observations. My observations began late one afternoon, before any eggs had been laid. Hundreds of the birds were grouped together, incessantly fighting and screaming. It quickly became apparent that most of them had chosen a nest-site and were defending it against all late-comers. Both male and female were present. Each pair in this particular locality defended a circular territory, roughly 14 inches to 2 feet in diameter. Other birds in wandering around would stumble into this sacred territory and a fight would ensue. The fights would often lead to encroachments upon the territory of still other birds. The number of those fighting would thus be constantly increased. I have seen as many as 14 sooties thus engaging in a fight. Birds 10 and 15 feet away would rush into the fight and the noise and confusion beggared description. Sometimes as many as 10 or 15 such fighting groups could be observed in the area of 1,000 square feet. Quiet would momentarily ensue and then be broken by another series of fights. During the choice of the nesting-site the fights continue day and night, with only intermittent periods of quiet.

Within this charmed circle the two mated birds remain relatively quiet. At this time sexual activity is at its height. It frequently happened in the sexual process that the two birds would step outside of their own territory

Fig. 4.

Fig. 5.

Fig. 6.

Fig. 7.

Nesting attitudes of Noddies.

and a general fight would ensue. When the sexual reaction is in progress it is a signal for the surrounding males to encroach. Coition is thus completed only after much fighting. I have seen the male attempt to mount the female 12 to 15 times and at each attempt be interfered with by neighboring males.

The actual construction of the nest, when a nest-structure is formed, begins after an undefended area has been found. The process of nest-building is somewhat as follows: The bird puts the breast to the ground, thereby supporting the body and leaving the legs comparatively free. The feet are used as a combined scraper and shovel. A few backward strokes of the feet are made, which serve both to loosen the sand and to remove it from beneath the body. The bird then turns slightly and repeats the process. When it has turned 360° (or less) it begins to use the breast as a shaper. By continuing this process, the depression is soon made to assume the required diameter and depth. My notes show that the bay-cedar leaves are often gathered up and placed around the rim of the nest as the hole is being dug. I can not say which sex does the work, but I believe that both male and female engage in it. As soon as the depression is made, both birds begin to defend it. Naturally, where no nest is made, the nest-site alone is chosen and defended as described above.

If we compare the behavior of the noddy during this period with that of the sooty as described above, we find that the former is quietly building its nest and engaging systematically in a fixed routine of instinctive activities. The contrast in the behavior of the two species is always marked, but never more so than at this period of the nesting season.

THE DAILY RHYTHM OF ACTIVITIES.

ACTIVITIES OF THE NODDY BEFORE THE EGG IS LAID.

While observing the noddies at work upon the nest, it soon became apparent that the daily routine of the female was different from that of the male. From many hundreds of observations it was also evident that the male feeds the female at more or less regular intervals. Incidental mention has already been made of this difference in the activities of the male and female in the previous sections, but a more detailed statement is in order if we are thoroughly to understand the economic conditions obtaining on the island.

After both birds have worked upon the nest for some time, the male leaves and is gone for varying lengths of time, depending upon the ease with which food is obtained. While he is away the female rarely leaves the nest. She sits usually upon a nearby limb and rarely shows signs of activity. It is not unusual to see four or five females thus sitting motionless and stupid for hours at a stretch. Observation at such a time becomes exceedingly trying. Quiet is occasionally broken by the males from other

nests attempting to establish sexual relations with these temporarily unguarded females. This is in all cases unsuccessful. Disturbance to some extent is also caused by other birds attempting to poach straws. If the day is hot, the female may make frequent trips to the water. The nest is thus left for a time unwatched. The bird quickly returns, however, and resumes watch over it.

The male returns with a full-laden crop. He alights directly upon the nest or near the female. The female at once shows signs of life, and as they approach each other they begin nodding. Then the male invites the female to feed by putting his beak down to a position convenient to her. She gets the food by taking it directly from the mouth of the male, the male disgorging it by successive muscular contractions of the throat and abdomen. The impression one gets from this ludicrous performance is that the bird is choking to death. During the whole of the process of feeding, a soft, nasal, rattling purr is emitted, presumably by the female. This purring sound is an invariable indication that feeding is taking place. It is to be heard on no other occasion.

At times the male upon his return is not so ready to feed the female. The female then strikes the bill of the male sharply with her own. I have seen the female thus strike the male 18 to 24 times before eliciting the proper response from him. On other occasions, the female is reluctant to feed the proper length of time, whereupon the male gently taps the female and puts his beak near her own again and again. The controlling stimuli throughout this reaction seem to be *organic and visual.* We might schematize the principal features of the reactions, as a whole, as follows:

The male fishes until intra-organic pressure of food in the crop reaches a certain intensity. This acts as a stimulus to return (proximate and distant orientation discussed on pages 224 and 227 respectively). The visual stimulus of mate (and nest and nest locality) coupled with the intra-organic stimuli just mentioned, condition the feeding reaction. On the part of the female we have the intra-organic (hunger) stimulus and the visual stimulus induced by the movements of the male. The male disgorges until there is a cessation of the excessive intra-organic pressure, at which time his feeding movements cease and the female may strike his beak in vain. The female in her turn feeds until there is both a cessation of hunger and a normal intra-organic pressure established. If this takes place before the male is ready, he in turn attempts to further stimulate the female by a slight change in behavior (*i. e.*, "coaxing" by tapping the female and putting his beak down near her).

The feeding reaction completed, the birds often sit near each other, nestling and nodding vigorously. This is the time usually chosen for coition, which takes place frequently up to the time the egg is laid. Feeding may occur at any time of the day, but the best time to observe it is at sunset, when the males are returning in numbers.

At night the two birds usually remain in branches near the nest, but if disturbed, both fly away for a short distance and circle back almost immediately to the nest. In flying at night both the noddy and the sooty break their graceful flight into short, ungraceful, and ill-directed choppy swoops, very similar to the way the night-hawk breaks its flight when flying after dusk.

During the egg-laying period, which is at the same time the nest-building period, we may summarize the chief points in the lives of the noddies by saying (1) that there is common activity in the building of the nest; (2) that the female guards the nest while (3) the male procures food for both. Both birds are quite wild during this period. If the nest is approached they fly away and make no effort to defend it. For this reason it is difficult to capture and to mark the birds. They fly away at night at the first approach of a lantern or torch. Their behavior at this time, in this respect, is quite different from that observed later on during the brooding period.

ACTIVITIES OF THE SOOTY BEFORE THE EGG IS LAID.

I can say little concerning the separate daily activities of the male and female sooties during the corresponding period. My time was centralized around the nests of the noddies for the first two weeks of my stay, and consequently I lost my best opportunity to study this period of the life of the sooties. The birds are so numerous and the confusion so great at this time that detailed and sustained observations of habits are well-nigh impossible. That feeding of the female occurs I am sure, but I am not sure that the female never fishes for herself. I spent several continuous hours, at different times, observing the nests of the sooties, and the only feeding reaction I saw took place late in the afternoon. The details of the feeding process are very similar to those described above for the noddies, except that when feeding between two sooties begins it is the signal for the approach of dozens of other birds, which precipitates many fights. The noise of the colony as a whole is so deafening at all times that it is impossible to say whether a special sound or series of sounds is made while the female is feeding.

During the period before the egg is laid the sooty, like the noddy, will leave the nest if one approaches, and unless one is quite a distance away the bird will not approach the nest locality. It will circle in the air again and again, giving out the shrill nasal alarm cry of "ëäh, ëäh, ëäh." It is the most restless and noisy bird I know, and almost as much so at night as during the day. Sleep apparently is taken during both day and night by dozing momentarily at intervals. How the bird maintains its vigor with no more continuous rest than it takes is a mystery. This peculiarity of the sooty has led to the popular nickname of "wideawake tern."

ACTIVITIES OF THE NODDY AFTER THE EGG IS LAID.

The noddy lays one egg. It may be laid almost as soon as enough straws are placed together to support the egg or it may not be laid until after sev-

eral weeks of nest-building. It has been mentioned that the noddy never fully completes its nest; but after the egg is laid the gathering of additional nest-material is a sporadic activity.

The first eggs were noticed on May 4. On May 6 I marked 16 nests and visited each twice daily. The first egg was found in these nests on the 11th; not until the 25th did each nest contain its egg. My chart shows that the majority of the eggs were laid from the 11th to the 16th. Fisher[1] has the following to say concerning the appearance of the egg:

> The rather acute ovate egg is a creamy white, sparsely spotted with light gray, burnt umber, and walnut brown. Most of the brown spots are on the larger half, and are sometimes small and at other times quite large (4 to 8 mm. across). One egg has no dark marks, but is scantily spotted and streaked with light Mars-brown. Specimens vary from 58 by 48 to 51 by 35 mm.

After the egg is laid, a marked change appears in the behavior of both the male and the female. The birds will now attack even a human intruder, and their defense of the nest against their own kind becomes even more strict than before.[2] Oftentimes the birds will sit on the egg and allow themselves to be caught, striking viciously all the while with their long, keen, pointed beaks. Individuals vary greatly in this respect. On my daily rounds, as I approached the vicinity of a group of nests, several noddies would usually advance to meet me, striking viciously at my head. Their attacks would continue until I withdrew. Many times I have had my hat knocked off and the blood brought from my scalp by their vicious attacks. This change in the behavior of the noddies, which is so marked and which begins so abruptly, will be spoken of again further on in the paper. It may be said here that the stimulus to the change is to be sought for in the tactual and visual impulses aroused by the egg.

Still another marked change occurs in the habits of the birds: The male no longer feeds the female. Each bird takes equal turns at brooding the egg. My attention was first called to this while I was watching the habits of the birds before the egg was laid. Several nests in the vicinity of the place of observation already contained eggs. At these nests I was never able to observe the feeding of the female by the male. At this period the two birds become practically automata. Their life is taken up in alternately brooding the egg and in feeding. The birds spend little or no time together except at night. The one comes to the nest, the other flies away to feed.

When the returning bird (which I designate *R*) arrives at the nest, the bird on the nest (which I shall designate *O*) may or may not immediately react to it. To take the most rapid case of immediate "relief" at the nest first, we find *R* returning and alighting on the rim of the nest. *R* nods to *O*. *O* nods in return. This continues for a moment, when *O* takes flight. *R* immediately covers the egg.

[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 783.
[2] See Thompson, *op. cit.*, p. 81.

Fig. 8.

Fig. 9.

Fig. 10.

Fig. 11.

Young Sooties.

Fig. 8. Eight Days. Fig. 9. One Day. Fig. 10. Three Days. Fig. 11. Thirty Days.

In other cases both *O* and *R* will stay on the nest together for as long as 20 minutes. All the time *R* is "crowding" *O* more and more; suddenly, as *R* receives contact stimulation from the egg, a more pronounced movement is made, thus forcing *O* aside. *O* is thus freed from contact stimulation. *O* gets up, nods to *R*, and flies away. *R* (now *O*) turns the egg with the beak and settles gradually down into the nest.

A few examples are here quoted from my notes:

May 12, 1907. One "relief" noted. *O* had been on egg for a long time. *R* returned and gradually pushed *O* aside. Nodding reaction very much abridged. *O* circled around nest, then flew away.

May 13, 1907. *O* had been on nest 3.5 hours. At 12 o'clock *R* appeared. *R* alighted upon the rim of nest and gave one or two upward flirts with the beak. *O* was then gradually shoved aside. After *O* had been pushed from the egg, both birds occupied the nest together for 15 minutes. *O* then disappeared. In a nearby nest the *R* perched motionless for 25 minutes on the rim of the nest before attempting to push the *O* aside.

The egg is generally covered day and night. Occasional trips are made by *O* to the water for drinking and for wetting the breast feathers. This latter reaction has its value possibly in keeping the egg at the proper temperature. The sun is so hot that if the egg were left uncovered for any great length of time it probably would not incubate. Occasionally, however, *O* will perch for 10 to 15 minutes on a nearby limb, leaving the egg exposed.

After I had observed some 12 to 15 cases of the above interchange of activities at the nest, and found that the average time required for a shift to take place was 2 hours, it occurred to me that the birds might have some mechanism which might function as a time-sense (organic stimulation of some kind, probably). In order to carry out the work carefully, one bird (sex not determined) at each of 3 nests was marked with oil paint (aniline dyes do not resist the action of the salt water). The nests were visited every half hour, beginning at 6 a. m. and continuing until 8 p. m. The observations were continued 2.5 days. In table 1, *M* refers to the presence of the marked bird at the nest, *U* of the unmarked bird. The letter *p* shows the presence of both birds at the nest.

From the table it appears at a glance that the period of occupancy of the nest is a variable one, ranging from 30 minutes to 5 hours. In some cases, however, the sequence is somewhat regular (see May 22, 1907, nest No. 3, from 8 a. m. to 8 p. m). It must be remembered that *R* is the bird which controls the length of time *O* occupies the nest. *O* remains until *R* returns.[1]

It would be interesting to determine the stimulus which leads *R* to return to the nest. *R* does not always appear at the nest the moment the island

[1] Experiments on distant orientation where one bird is removed from the nest for several days at a time show that *O* will remain on the nest without going for food for 24 to 48 hours, but not longer. After this period elapses, *O* will go for food, leaving the nest and egg unguarded.

TABLE I.—*Various "shifts" made at the nests of the noddies, May 21, 22, and 23, 1907.*

Time.	Nest I.			Nest II.			Nest III.		
	May 21.	May 22.	May 23.	May 21.	May 22.	May 23.	May 21.	May 22.	May 23.
6h 00m a. m.	M	M	M	M	U p	U	U	U	M
6 30	M	M	U	M	M	M	U	M p	M
7 00	M	M	M	M	U	U	U	U p	U
7 30	M	M	M	M	U	U	U	M	U
8 00	M	U p	M	M	U	U	U p	U p	U
8 30	M	U	M	M	M	M	M	U	U
9 00	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	U	U
9 30	M	U	M	M	M	M	M	U	U
10 00	U	U	M	U p	M p	M	M	M	U
10 30	U	U	U	M	M	M	M	M	U
11 00	U p	U	...	U	M	...	M	M	M
11 30	M	M	...	M	M	...	M	M	...
12 00 m.	M	M	...	M	U	...	M	M	...
12 30 p. m.	M	M	...	M	U	...	M	M	...
1 00	U p	U	...	M p	U	...	M	U	...
1 30	U	U	...	M p	U	...	U	U	...
2 00	U	U	...	U p	U	...	U	U	...
2 30	M	U	...	U	Mp	...	U	U	...
3 00	M	U	...	U	U	...	U	M	...
3 30	U	U	...	M	U	...	M	M	...
4 00	U	U p	...	M	M	...	M	M	...
4 30	U	M	...	M	M	...	M	M	...
5 00	U	M	...	M	M	...	M	M	...
5 30	U	M	...	M	M	...	U	U	...
6 00	U	U	...	M	M	..	U	U	...
6 30	U	U	...	M	M	...	U	U	...
7 00	U	U	...	M	M	...	U	U	...
7 30	U	U	...	M	M	...	U	U	...
8 00	U	U	...	M	U	...	M	M	...

is reached. *R* often joins a group of other noddies sunning upon the beach or house-top (preferably the beach) and goes from this place to relieve *O*. We shall here describe the "sunning reaction" a little more in detail.

In the brooding period, this "sunning reaction" (mentioned by Thompson, Palmer, *et al.*) is engaged in largely (1) by *R*'s before they return to the nest; (2) by *O*'s just leaving the nest, and (3) by birds which, I believe, are not attached to any nest. Figures 27 and 28, plate 11, show the noddies collected near the beach. The house-top, the dock and an old wreck, the top of my experimental cages, etc., were all utilized by the birds for this purpose. Although the reaction is at bottom gregarious (similar to the feeding reaction) the birds are stolidly indifferent to one another's presence. They sit silent, head to the wind, elaborately preening their feathers, pecking first at one toe, then at another. Occasionally when another noddy joins the group a mutual nodding is engaged in which at times for no observable reason ends in a fight. The birds here as elsewhere are silent. It is interesting to note that a definite distance is maintained between birds engaged in this activity. The distance is determined, I believe, by the long diameter of the body of the bird—they must have a free space in which to turn. I have seen 10 to 12 birds upon the comb of the roof of the house separated

from one another by distances so regular that the unaided eye can with difficulty distinguish inequalities in the spacing.

The above reaction was discussed in this connection because of its bearing upon the question of the presence of an "organic time-sense" in the noddy. The birds (*R*'s) often leave these chosen spots to go to the nest and relieve the mate. The probable conclusion to be drawn is that organic impulses furnish the stimulus leading to the return to the nest. If this be the case, we should expect the functioning of such a time-sense to be as inaccurate as our chart actually shows the case to be.

Summing up this long section on the behavior of the brooding noddies, we find: (1) that the presence of the egg brings about a change in the distribution of labor between the sexes; (2) the male no longer feeds the female, but each sex separately obtains its food; (3) the egg is brooded constantly day and night by both sexes, the male and female relieving each other at intervals varying from 30 minutes to 5 hours, the average interval being in the neighborhood of 2 hours;[1] (4) the most significant general reaction caused by the presence of the egg is the change in the disposition of the birds. Before the egg appears, the birds are shy and leave the nest at the slightest disturbance; after the egg is laid, the birds will defend the nest against even human invaders.

It is a little hard for the student absorbed in mammalian behavior alone to understand the fixed character of all these responses—the relative lack of any large store of latent adaptability and plasticity. These reactions preserve the birds and have preserved them for ages in this favored environment. There is no need for a larger repertoire of reactions. There is good material here for the study of the acquisition of habits and the permanency of such habits in an organism which is by nature already so largely adapted to its environment.

ACTIVITIES BY THE SOOTY AFTER THE EGG IS LAID.

The sooty, like the noddy, as a rule lays one egg, although I counted some 25 cases where a nest contained 2 eggs and, in one observed case, 2 birds were actually hatched and reared. The first egg was laid on May 7. By May 15 thousands of eggs were present. Fisher[2] has the following to say concerning the markings of the sooty egg:

> The ground-color is white or occasionally a cream buff. One type of marking consists of deep burnt sienna and grayish vinaceous spots, with occasional nearly black scrawls scattered rather evenly over the whole surface. These spots are 1, 2, and 3 mm. in diameter, with occasional larger and smaller ones. Another less prevalent variation consists of heavy, very deep burnt sienna blotches (5 to 15 mm. in

[1] It would be interesting to determine whether the birds relieve each other at night, or brood the egg on alternate nights, or finally, whether one sex always retains possession of the nest at night.

[2] *Op. cit.*, p. 780.

extent) congregated in a zone near the blunt end, and lesser pale grayish vinaceous and deep burnt sienna spots sparsely scattered over the rest of the egg.

The general disposition of the sooty, like that of the noddy, changes after the egg is laid and in the same way. Some of them become far bolder than the noddies in a corresponding situation. It was possible for me to lie down within a few inches of a brooding sooty and have it remain on the nest indefinitely. If the hand is extended toward the sooty it will attack vigorously, but I have never had a group of flying sooties attack me as I approached the vicinity of their nests, as was sometimes the case when I ventured too near the nests of the noddies. The birds are very variable in this respect. When one approaches a neighborhood containing many nests, the majority of the birds will fly up into the air, circling round and round, screaming all the while. If one remains quiet, the birds will gradually return and cover the eggs. Gradually the nests nearest one's position will be cautiously approached and then occupied. A certain small percentage of the birds will remain on the nest, no matter how violent the disturbance.

My study of the instinctive reactions of the brooding sooties was again beset with difficulties because of the large number of birds present. My method of studying their behavior was similar to the one just described for the noddies. I would choose a favorable spot where several nests containing marked birds could easily be observed at once, then record what went on at each separate nest. I speedily found that the nesting reactions of the brooding sooties are quite different from those of the noddy. I would sometimes spend 4 to 6 hours at the nests without seeing a single bird leave its nest except to make short excursions for the purpose of fighting or to obtain water. The following day would sometimes find the same bird on the nest, sometimes its mate. In order more accurately to obtain data upon the question of the division of labor between the two sexes, I made a table (table 2) similar to the one presented for the noddies. At first the observations were taken every half hour, but as soon as it became apparent that so many observations were needless the period was lengthened.

It appears conclusively from table 2 that the shift at the nest is roughly a diurnal one, but that at times it may not occur except once in 48 hours. All of the factors in this reaction do not appear in the table. Apparently most of the shifts are made at night. I attempted on many occasions to determine the hour of shifting by leaving a lantern near the nest and making observations during the night, but the light could not be arranged so as not to frighten the birds, and their reactions consequently were not natural. The birds would refuse to cover their eggs if the light were made intense enough to be of value to me.

Then again, in certain cases, the shift is not made within the 24-hour period. Where is the absent bird? All my efforts to discover its presence near the nest failed. Does it go such a great distance for food that it must

Fig. 12.

Fig. 13.

Fig. 14.

Young Noddies.

Fig. 12. One Day. Fig. 13. Three Days. Fig. 14. Three Days (born white).

TABLE 2.—*Various "shifts" made at the nests of the sooties.*

Date.	Time.	Nest I.	Nest II.	Nest III.	Nest IV.	Nest V.	Nest VI.
May 21, 1907—	6h 00m a. m.	U	M	M	U	U	...
	6 30	U	M	M	U	U	...
	7 00	U	M	M	U	U	...
	7 30	U	M	M	U	U	...
	8 00	U	M	M	U	U	...
	8 30	U	M	M	U	U	...
	9 00	U	M	M	U	U	...
	9 30	U	M	M	U	U	...
	10 00	U	M	M	U	U	...
	10 30	U	M	M	U	U	...
	11 00	U	M	M	U	U	...
	11 30	U	M	M	U	U	...
	12 00 m.	U	M	M	U	U	...
	12 30 p. m.	U	M	M	U	U	...
	1 00	U	M	M	U	U	...
	1 30	U	M	M	U	U	...
	2 00	U	M	M	U	U	...
	2 30	U	M	M	U	U	...
	3 00	U	M	M	U	U	...
	3 30	U	M	M	M	U	...
	4 00	U	M	M	M	U	...
	4 30	U	M	M	M	U	...
	5 00	U	M	M	M p	U	...
	5 30	U	M	M	M	U	...
	6 00	U	M	M	M	U	...
	6 30	U	M	M p	M	U	...
	7 00	U	M p	M p	M	U	...
	7 30	U	M p	M p	M	U	...
May 22, 1907—	6 00 a. m.	M	U	U	M	M	U
	7 00	M	U	U	M	M	U
	8 00	M	U	U	M	M	U
	9 00	M	U	U	M	M	U
	10 00	M	U	U	M	M	U
	11 00	M	U	U	M	M	U
	12 00 m.	M	U	U	M	M	U
	1 00 p. m.	M	U	U	M	M	U
	2 00	M	U	U	M	M	U
	3 00	M	U	U	M	M	U
	4 00	M	U	U	M	M	M
	5 00	M	U	U	M	M	M
	6 00	M	U	U	M	M	M
	7 00	M	U	U	M	M	M
	8 00	M	U	U	M	M	M
May 23, 1907—	6 00 a. m.	U	M	M	M	U	M
	7 00	U	M	M	M	U	M
	8 00	U	M	M	M	U	M
	9 00	U	M	M	M	U	M
	10 00	U	M	M	M	U	M
	11 00	U	M	M	M	U	M
	3 00 p. m.	U	M	M	M	U	M
	5 30	U	M	M	M	U	M
	7 15	U	M	U	M	U	M
May 24, 1907—	7 30 a. m.	M	U	U	U	M	M
	9 00	M	U	U	U	M	M
	10 00	M	U	U	U	M	M
	3 00 p. m.	M	U	U	U	M	M
	5 00	M	U	U	U	M	M
	7 00	M	U	U	U	M	M
May 25, 1907—	8 00 a. m.	U	M	U	U	U	M
	12 00 m.	U	M	U	U	U	M
	8 00 p. m.	U	M	U	U	U	M
May 26, 1907—	8 00 a. m.	U	M	U	M	M	U
	7 00 p. m.	U	M	M	U	M	U
May 27, 1907—	7 00 a. m.	M	U	U	U	U	U

remain away over night? The nearest land (and the birds never swim nor rest on the water) is 45 miles away (Marquesas, a very small key), and there is no evidence, so far as I know, that these birds visit there (none remains over night on the small islands belonging to the Tortugas group). On page 194 it is shown that in all probability these birds do not leave the island for distances greater than 15 knots in their search for food, and that they return at nightfall (or shortly thereafter) and leave at daybreak. My explanation of this failure to "shift the watch" is found in the peculiar restless nature of the birds. In actually observing their behavior during the shifts which occurred toward nightfall, I found that *R* would come and push *O* aside. *O* would leave for a few moments, then would return and scrouge back upon the nest. This would sometimes be repeated three or four times, one bird leaving the other temporarily in possession of the nest. If this procedure were gone through with in the early morning hours, it is easy to see how the wrong bird might easily join a group of other sooties leaving the island for food. *O* would thus be left in possession of the nest for two days in succession. The settlement of this point is one extremely to be desired. If later controlled experimentation is ever to be undertaken, it is necessary for us thoroughly to understand their feeding and nesting habits.[1]

Occasionally my records show the presence of both birds at the nest for several hours at a time. The general behavior of the brooding birds can best be understood by citations from my notes, which were made at the time and place of observation. By the following citations I hope to give a general impression of the behavior of the sooty colony at a time when its life is most complex, about the middle of May. Some of the birds have laid and are brooding their eggs, while others have not yet laid, but are present defending the nest-sites. In order to facilitate description, I shall use the letter *S* to designate the bird brooding the egg (the "sitter") and *G* to designate the mate of this bird, which is usually standing guard (when present). The term "layers" is used to designate those birds which have chosen a nest-site but have not yet laid the (one) egg. Reference to the habits of the latter should more properly have been made on page 203, but since the behavior of the "layers" influences the behavior of the brooding birds to some extent they enter into the observation.

May 13, 1907. Position taken near large group of "layers" and "sitters." The *S*'s droop their wings and waddle around the egg, finally sitting down upon it in a stiff and clumsy fashion. They are very much more restless than the noddies. They are constantly engaging in fights, leaving the eggs in order to do so. They turn round and round frequently, orienting the head differently at each adjustment. In some cases the *G* is present. In one

[1] It is suggested that the nesting behavior at night could be studied by means of flashlight photographs if the birds and nests were prominently enough marked. Fig. 21, plate 7, shows poorly the possibilities in this method.

case it stands about 2 feet from the nest, fighting all birds which approach. Once when this *G* drove a strange bird too near *S*, *S* left the egg to assist in the fight. Often in sitting down on the egg *S* rocks it gently, turns it with the beak, and gradually brings her weight upon it.[1]

Birds on alighting, if orientation has not been exact, have to run the gauntlet of hundreds of sharp beaks before they finally reach their own nests. Since this is constantly occurring, it greatly adds to the general confusion. Where the nests are under the bay-cedar bushes the birds on returning usually alight near the edge of open spaces and then run on foot to their nests, while if the nests are in the open spaces they circle around until the nest is located, and then alight.

During this observation I saw three cases of feeding at nest-site where no egg had been laid. Feeding was accomplished with great difficulty. Dozens of other birds attempted to interfere, especially the *G*'s of nearby nests.[2]

One case of shift at the nest was observed. *S* had been on the nest during the whole previous time of observation. Suddenly *G* went to the nest and gradually pushed *S* aside. *G* sat on egg for a few moments, then got up. *S* sat down on egg immediately. *G* then returned, pushed *S* aside, adjusted carefully, and remained on the egg.

During this observation and in many others my attention was called to a peculiar reaction in the male. When approaching his mate and at times other females, he would arch his neck, droop his wings, lower his head slightly, turn the head to one side, and strut around and around the female, at times raising his head and then lowering it. The reaction is very similar to the one exhibited by the cock of our common barnyard fowls when he has called the females to feed. Figure 19, plate 7, shows 2 males in this attitude.

My notes show that in some cases during the brooding period the birds sit quietly on the egg the whole day long, even in the midst of the turmoil which is ever present.

In summarizing this unsatisfactory section we may say:

(1) The presence of the egg brings about a change in the disposition of the sooty which is very similar to the one already noted in the noddy.

(2) One important difference between the two species of birds is to be noticed—whereas the shift at the nest in the case of the noddy occurs once in 2 hours, the shift in the case of the sooty occurs once in 24 hours. This leads us to conclude that there must be an enormous difference in the way in which organic data function in controlling the reactions of the two species.

The general impression one gets from close observation of the sooty is that auditory and visual stimuli play a more important rôle in its life than in the life of the noddy.

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[1] See fig. 2, plate 1.

[2] This same reaction was often noticed when the parents attempted to feed the young.

ACTIVITIES BY THE NODDY AFTER THE EGG IS HATCHED.

The period of incubation varies for the noddy from 32 to 35 days. This fact was determined on the basis of 16 observations. The young began to appear on the island about May 9 (1907). The development of the young of both species is discussed separately further on in this paper. Under the present heading I shall mention only the change that the presence of the young brings in the behavior of the parents. At this period there is an increased tendency to defend the nest. They will now attack with vigor other noddies which approach too near the nest, the sooties and the frigate birds (*Fregata aquila*). From the writings of others I had drawn the conclusion (1) that the frigate-bird attacks the terns and forces them to disgorge, and (2) that it feeds upon their young. I spent many weary hours in attempting to discover the relation of the frigate-bird to the terns, especially its relation to the noddies. Since the noddies build their nests in the bushes where the frigate-birds roost, it was presumed that there if anywhere the devouring tendency of the frigate-bird ought to appear.[1] I found that the cause of the disturbance between noddy and frigate-bird lies chiefly in the fact that the latter, in attempting to find a bush in which to rest, sun, or roost, will oftentimes alight upon or very near to a noddy nest, whereupon the noddy most immediately concerned and those nearby will attack the frigate-bird and at times even rout him. It is a common occur-

[1] When I first went to the island, about 50 frigate-birds were present. The number gradually increased during my stay, until at the end 400 to 500 were present. I caught and forced a number of these birds to disgorge (which they readily do), for the purpose of finding whether or not the remains of young terns or of very small minnows, the food of the terns, could be discovered in the stomach contents. I found that the staple article of diet with them is the flying-fish, which they can easily catch. At times I found fairly large herring and mullet. I also killed 2 of these birds, but found no traces of young terns. In one case the stomach cavity contained no food. This latter observation was interesting in view of the fact that for days during unpleasant weather these birds apparently do not leave the island. This fact made me think at first that possibly the young terns were preyed upon by the frigate-birds in bad weather, but I am convinced that the latter can go without food for long periods of time. On the other hand, it must be confessed that after the young terns appear the number of frigate-birds increases and that all during the day, when the sooties nesting in the open places are feeding their young, the frigate-birds line the bushes bordering upon the nests. At times a frigate-bird will swoop down and fly near the ground. This causes all the sooties to fly up and raise a terrible commotion. This soon subsides, only to be repeated an instant later when another frigate-bird flies to or near the ground. I built an observatory on top of the house and a tent in the midst of the nesting-places, and kept the whole island under close inspection with a field-glass (in this connection I wish to thank the firm of Bausch and Lomb for the use during my entire stay of an excellent stereo-binocular field-glass) in order to determine whether the frigate-bird when it made these movements actually picked up the young or whether it was attempting to pick up food which the parent bird had dropped while feeding the young. My efforts were unsuccessful, so far as showing that the frigate-bird really does violence to the young tern or filches its food. The sooty, in contrast to the noddy, never attacks the frigate-bird.

All that I have read about the ability of these birds to control their movements during flight is true. I have observed them many times in mid-air forcing a victim of their own species to disgorge a fish, which one of the pursuers would catch long before it struck the water.

Fig. 15.

Fig. 16.

Young Noddies.

Fig. 15. Eighteen Days. Fig. 16. Thirty Days.

rence, especially late in the afternoon, when the frigate-birds are returning, to see hundreds of such fights. The noddy is always careful to attack the frigate-birds by sudden thrusts (usually made from below), dodging quickly to avoid their fearful and powerful beaks.

The curlew is also an occasional visitant on the island. The appearance of this uncouth bird brings forth fierce attacks from the noddies at this period of their stay. Figure 25, plate 10, shows an attack upon one of these birds.

The parent birds alternately feed the young. The length of the intervals between feedings varies from 2 to 4 hours. The appearance of the young does not alter the feeding relations of the parents, which were found to hold in the table shown above. The interesting additional factor is that now when the birds go out to feed they must bring back a supply for the young bird. The question immediately arises: Does the parent actually catch more fish after the young is hatched, or does it catch the normal supply and share that with the young? If it catches an additional supply, what is the stimulus which leads to a more abundant filling of the crop? If an additional supply of fish is not caught, we should expect (1) either that the birds would feed oftener or (2) that they would become very much emaciated while they are caring for the young. Since my observations show that the birds do become emaciated during the rearing of the young, and that they apparently do not go out to feed any oftener, I am inclined to think that no additional supply of fish is (instinctively) provided for the young. The parents simply disgorge when the appropriate stimulus is at hand, *i. e.*, the sight and contact of the young. Since this process would tend to make the parent birds very hungry (or rather enormously to decrease intra-organic pressure) they probably actually catch more fish on any one trip than they would otherwise.[1] But this larger catch may be due to an emptier stomach and not to any instinctive tendency to provide food for the young.

The apparatus for disgorgement is easily thrown into activity in these birds—very much more so than is the case with the sooties. My appearance at a group of nests in which young were present would call forth many such responses. As has already been mentioned, the noddy stays close by to defend its young. The bird usually sits on the nest and scolds in its peculiar, rasping way. Apparently this vocal effort can be better accomplished after the crop has been relieved of its contents; the bird can also probably fight better. Outside of these two possible reasons, I can offer no additional suggestion as to the biological value of this function when it is exercised in this connection.

At this point, as well as at all others, one finds extreme monotony, fixedness, and lack of variability in the responses.

[1] Since the birds nearly always are supplied with enough fish to disgorge at disturbance I doubt whether "hunger" in the usual sense of the word could under ordinary conditions be attributed to them. Increase or decrease in the intra-organic pressure could function in the same way.

The young are cared for in the nest until they become strong enough to leave it and live upon the ground. The young birds born in low nests, even at a very early age (20 days and even earlier), clamber from them with alacrity and hide in nearby bushes when danger is imminent. In many cases these young birds can not get back into the nest. Under these circumstances they remain near the nest locality, and the parents on returning first alight on or near the nest and later hop to the ground and feed the young bird. It is interesting to speculate upon the method of recognition between parent and young. There can be no doubt at least of an accurate functional recognition. Since the noddy is always silent when contented, the evidence is good that recognition occurs wholly in terms of vision. Whether recognition of young (or of mate by mate) would take place outside of the nest locality is a problem which ought to be solved.

On account of my early departure from the island (July 18) I can say nothing of the methods by which the parents induce the young to fly, to leave the island and to feed. This period is probably one of great interest. At the time of my departure many of the young noddies were on the ground and were attempting to fly. If I may be allowed to advance statements which lie beyond my actual observation, I should say that the parents are not active at all in "training" the young to fly and to feed.

As the young birds advance in age the parents more and more often engage in the "sunning reaction." My opinion is that the young birds first instinctively collect upon the beach, as soon as their wings will support them. In a short time the instinct to follow the adults leaving from this point to go to food will lead them out over the water. The sight of the jumping fish is a stimulus leading to the movements used in catching the fish. This activity engaged in a few times so perfects the hereditary mechanism that the bird soon becomes independent of the parent in an environment where food is abundant.

In summarizing this section we may say: (1) that the parents alternately feed the young at intervals varying from 1 to 4 hours; (2) that their general conduct is not greatly changed at the time of the appearance of the young, the changes actually observable being an increased tendency to protect the nest and to disgorge on being disturbed.[1]

My own observations naturally contain nothing concerning the behavior of these birds when preparing for southern migration. Thompson[2] writes as follows (concerning both noddies and sooties):

> Towards the end of September the birds begin to leave. They leave in great flocks and at night. The entire exodus consumes, apparently, but two or three days; and some morning the observer will find the island absolutely deserted, save for a few crippled birds that have been injured and are unable to follow their comrades.

[1] As the young advance in age (20 days and at all later ages) the parent will readily leave the nest when disturbed. The tendency in this respect is to revert to the behavior exhibited during the egg-laying season.

[2] Op. cit., p. 82.

From the reports of most of the residents, I found that the birds generally leave from toward the middle of August to the first of September. That they leave at night is most improbable, unless "at night" means early morning, at or shortly after daybreak.

ACTIVITIES BY THE SOOTY AFTER THE EGG IS HATCHED.

The period of incubation of the sooty egg is 26 days. This observation is based upon 16 marked nests. The development of the young sooty is deferred to a later place in this paper.

The appearance of the young produces a profound change in the instinctive reactions of the sooty. A general change in the disposition of the bird is also noticeable. During the first three days after the appearance of the young, the sooty is reluctant to leave the young and nest on disturbance. Later, the adults fly away at the slightest disturbance, much as they do during the "laying" season. It is interesting to observe at every disturbance of a nesting-place how quickly the ground will be deserted by both young and old, after the young have reached the age of 3 days. As they leave, the alarm cry is sounded and the commotion spreads to all the nearby nests. When quiet is restored the birds again alight near the nest and gradually approach it. The young birds meantime have run to the bushes, where they remain motionless after sticking their heads into the crotch of some bush or depressing the body against any convenient solid object. The protective coloring of the young sooties is marked. When motionless, as above suggested, they are difficult to find. When the adult returns to the nest, the young birds gradually come from their hiding-places at the peculiar, clucking call of the parent. The parents (after the first few days) recognize their own offspring with ease and accuracy, often going to meet them as they emerge from the bushes. If by chance the wrong young bird is met, it is struck with great force. Naturally this is productive of fights between the adults.

If disturbance occurs before the young birds are 3 days old, they will "sham death" in the nest or advance a few feet from the nest and sham death on the open sand. Lying outstretched upon the ventral surface of the body, with head flat upon the ground, it is with difficulty that one believes that life is present. The slightest contact stimulation will cause the young bird to attempt to get on its feet and struggle away.

From 1 to 6 days is a critical period in the life of the young sooty. Hundreds of them are killed by the adults, and were it not for the "death-shamming instinct" thousands would perish. This tendency on the part of the adult birds, especially of gulls, to kill the young has often been commented upon by nature students, but the phenomenon has not been very well understood. The situation as it exists at the Tortugas colony is, I believe, not difficult of understanding. In the first place, we must consider the

appearance of the young as being strange to the adult sooty. The advent of young is sudden; their movements, marking, coloration, etc., are striking visual stimuli to the adult—especially to those which *have no young of their own* and which are still brooding the egg. As previously stated, after disturbance the adult returns to the nest first, then the young begin to struggle back from the bushes; and those shamming death in the open become active and crawl back into the nest (these latter are especially liable to be destroyed). In doing so, the young must often pass by areas defended by brooding adults. Each adult begins to attack the small bird for exactly the same reasons that it would attack a persistent sand-crab, or a noddy or another sooty. The young bird by its peculiar cries and movements continues to offer stimulation to the adults, and not until the former reaches its own nest or takes refuge in a motionless attitude and in a partially protected place do the attacks of the adults cease. As the young birds gain in agility (and in experience) they rapidly learn to avoid defended areas and to dart quickly by and under attacking adults. On many occasions I have seen from 4 to 8 adults thus attacking a young tern, chasing it for 10 to 15 feet.

At first the parent does not individually recognize its young, but reacts to it by reason of its presence at the nest.[1] Very early, however, there is mutual recognition between parents and young. The parent will advance toward its own young, even when several feet from the nest, and feed it, often forcing it back to the nest by a cumbersome rolling process. The young approaches the parent and nestles under its body. The parent advances toward the nest, often upsetting the young bird, but at the same time advancing it. Both visual and auditory data are used in the mutual recognition of parent and young. That auditory stimuli are functional can not be doubted. Often I have observed a returning bird give a call a long way off; both the adult and the young answer the call and show changes in their reactions. The parent at the nest will get up from the young and the young will stand up, flap its wings, and leap several times a few inches in the air. A moment later the returning bird will alight and feed the young.

In order to observe the influences of auditory data on nest localization, I watched the areas containing nests many times at night. One evening

[1] This was determined by exchanging young birds. The exchange is not noticed when the birds are very young, but is noticed after the young is a few days old. My notes are very inaccurate at this point. In one case I took the young at birth from one nest (marked) to rear by hand. Two days later I put a new-born sooty in this nest. The reactions of the adults were very curious. The male first came up to the stranger young and gently struck it; the female came up and the young bird attempted to nestle under her and to feed. Other birds from neighboring nests came up, but were driven off. After this the young was treated in the usual way. There is room for interesting and careful work upon this subject. (Some of the noddy young are born with black juvenile plumage, some with plumage that is almost pure white (see fig. 14, plate 4). Now, if a white bird is exchanged for a black one, or *vice versa*, no disturbance is noticed on the part of the parent, even if there is a difference of 3 or 4 days in the ages of the respective young birds.)

Fig. 17.

Fig. 18.

Groups of Nesting Sooties.

Fig. 17. The nests are made both in the open and under the Bay Cedar bushes.
Fig. 18. Fights among the Sooties are frequent in the congested nesting localities.

lay quiet and hidden for 3 hours near a large group of nests which was situated under some very dense bushes. The adult would circle over the area and give a call; it would be answered and random movements would give place to direct. The bird would steer immediately for the source of the call. By peculiar chuckling sounds, which are emitted at this period when mates return, one can be sure that the proper nest has been located. I observed this many times during one evening. After the young were 20 to 30 days old I have heard the young birds answer the call of the parent back and forth a dozen times before the latter actually alighted.

The parents alternately feed the young, but instead of a diurnal period of feeding, such as the parents have before the appearance of the young, the intervals vary anywhere from 4 to 7 hours. My observations are few on this point.

Though the parents feed the young at any hour of the day, feeding can be most easily observed at dusk. It has already been mentioned that the sooties hurry home at nightfall in great numbers. From 4 until 8 p. m. this feeding process keeps the island in commotion. The feeding of the young birds has many interested spectators. While I have never seen the terns from the neighboring nests, which may be observing the process, attempt to rob the young bird, I judge from the actions of the feeding parent that such is occasionally the case. If the parent happens to disgorge more than the young tern can take into its beak and the food is allowed to fall to the ground, it is ludicrous to watch the rapidity with which the parent picks up the food and reswallows it. Oftentimes the mate of the feeding parent is near; its rôle is a purely passive one, except when the "spectators" attempt to approach too near. Its part is then to assist in warding them off.

Neither young nor old is quiet during this period of the nesting season. On the contrary, the noise is practically doubled. In addition to the ordinary sounds made by the adults and the new cries which are added at this time, there is present the high-pitched, insistent "peep-peep" of the young terns. Momentarily the sounds of the adults will cease and the cries of the little ones remind one very strongly of a poultry-yard on a tremendous scale.

A reaction very similar to the "sunning reaction" of the noddies, while present to some extent before the appearance of the young, now shows itself in completed form. As may be judged from the feeding habits of brooding birds, practically only a half of the total number of birds is present on the island during the day, and that half is busied in brooding the eggs. Consequently there is little leisure at this time in the sooty colony. After the appearance of the young, the number of birds present on the island at any one time is much larger. When *R* returns to feed the young, *S* usually leaves the nest, but as in the case of the noddies does not always leave immediately to feed. They collect upon the beach and sun themselves, preening their feathers and standing idly about in a way which is quite similar to

the noddy. Figures 23 and 24, plate 9, show the birds engaged in sunning. The peculiarity in the reaction is that the birds always choose this one spot (the one shown in the cut) in which to assemble. Occasionally the noddies are to be found in the same spot. Figure 23, plate 9, shows the noddies leaving the beach in advance of the sooties. They "sun" nearer to shore than the sooties. Until we know more of the history of the life of the sooty, it will be difficult to understand the meaning of this reaction.

There is one rather interesting difference between the habits of the noddy and those of the sooty which may be mentioned here: Every stake, buoy, or possible resting-place upon the water is utilized by the noddy. It will sit almost motionless upon any object projecting from the water for long periods of time. This habit of theirs is like that found in the cormorants, boobies, and pelicans which are present in the neighborhood. I have never observed a similar reaction in the sooty. I think the sooty always leaves the island and returns to it without at any time having ceased its flight. This seems rather remarkable when we take into account the fact that the sooty leaves the island in the early morning and oftentimes does not return until toward nightfall.

The sooties often soar round and round, getting higher and higher until lost to sight. They usually join the frigate-birds in this reaction. I am inclined to think that the sooty when sufficiently fed spends a large part of its time in such maneuvers. I have never observed the noddies engage in this reaction.

In a note in the previous section, p. 212, we have already discussed the possible disturbance which the frigate-birds produce in the life of the sooties.

When I left the island, the oldest of the young sooties were about 30 days of age. They were still in their juvenile plumage. From 20 days on, these young birds could be found quite a distance from the nest, but the nest locality still exerted its influence to a marked degree, both upon the parents and upon the young, as shown by the fact that when one of the parents returned from its feeding expedition it always alighted at or near the nest. At the sight or the call from the parent, the young bird would hasten toward the nest to receive food. This ability on the part of the birds to approach within a few feet of a spot which to our eyes had no distinguishing marks, but which had served as a nesting-place, is little short of wonderful.

The care of the young, especially from 20 days on, must be an exhausting process for the parents. They become emaciated and somewhat bedraggled in appearance. This is not to be wondered at when we consider that a healthy young sooty can eat anywhere from 20 to 40 minnows of no insignificant size in a day. It may be of general interest to note that after the first few days the parent always recognizes and feeds its own young and no other, and furthermore, the young tern recognizes its own parents and attempts to feed only from them. Never but once out of many thou-

sands of observations did I see a young tern begging food from a stranger. The statement has often been made by certain observers that young gulls feed indiscriminately from any adult which happens to be near. Such is certainly not the case among the sooty terns.

In summarizing, we may say:

(1) The presence of the young changes the general disposition of the parents; for the first two or three days after the appearance of the young the parents are more ferocious, but as the young bird gathers strength and can get away from danger, the parents become more wary and leave the nest upon the slightest disturbance. In this latter respect, as is similarly the case with the noddies, they, as it were, tend to revert to the habits formerly exhibited during the laying period.

(2) A tremendous change appears in their feeding habits. During the brooding period the birds apparently are away all day; at the appearance of the young conditions are so changed that the birds relieve each other at the nest at intervals varying from 4 to 7 hours.

(3) The birds have more leisure; they utilize this leisure in collecting upon the beach for sunning.

(4) The birds become exhausted in caring for the young.

PRELIMINARY ATTEMPTS AT CONTROLLING THE REACTIONS OF ADULT BIRDS.

The experimental part of my work centered mainly around the young terns, because I could rear them by hand and could control their reactions through hunger. An experimental study of the adult birds is beset with many difficulties. The previous part of my work shows that until the egg is laid the terns can not be approached closely for experimental purposes. Only a short month was open to me after the egg was laid before the young appeared. After the young appeared, practically all of my time was devoted to them. From the middle of May until the middle of June, however, I had time to try the experiments upon the adult birds which are reported below at some length. I found that a month was too short a time in which to capture and tame adult birds for experimental purposes. In captivity, the birds are wild and restless, but unless they are in captivity they refuse to eat even live fish, even when the fish are placed near the nest. As was shown earlier, in the discussion of the feeding habits of these birds, the natural stimulus to the feeding reaction is the sight of schools of minnows jumping over the surface of the water. I may say in passing, however, that two sooties with broken wings learned to appear at my experimental cages whenever I fed the young terns. These two birds learned to eat both live and motionless fish either from the hand or from a dish. I think it not improbable that, had time permitted, I could have captured the birds and taught them to feed from the hand. Had this been done, hunger could then

have been used as a stimulus for controlling their reactions. In future work it would be worth while to give this method a thorough test and to compare it with the method described below.

A little experimentation soon convinced me that the method of using the nest locality in place of food was desirable under the circumstances, since the stimulus of the nest locality is almost as potent in its effects upon the reactions of these birds as the stimulus of food on the reactions of other animals. While this method of forcing the bird to overcome difficulties in order to reach the nest may not be so accurate nor so uniform in its stimulating effect as is the case when food is similarly used as a stimulus, it certainly has present in it all the elements of naturalness which even a Wesley Mills could demand. Before giving the results obtained from the use of this method, certain experiments bearing upon the general problem of recognition will be discussed.

TESTS WITH NODDIES AS TO RECOGNITION BETWEEN MATES.

My observations at the nests show that there is present in the noddy a very accurate functional recognition of both nest and mate. It will be remembered that, to our eyes at least, the male and female noddy are indistinguishable. The question then becomes a pertinent one as regards the way in which the female recognizes the male and *vice versa*. Is there recognition between the two birds or is the nest alone recognized and reacted to? From much observation, unsupported however by experimental work, it was forced upon me that the male and female could recognize each other, at least within the nest locality (actually observed recognition of this functional kind took place within a radius of 10 to 12 feet).

A few preliminary unsatisfactory tests of the following kind were made upon this subject: Two birds were caught from marked nests and treated in the following way: The black neck feathers of noddy No. 1 were dyed red with Higgins' ink. The white head and eye-spaces of noddy No. 2 were dyed red in a similar manner.

Noddy No. 1.—Released at $4^h\ 28^m$ p. m., 30 feet from nest. Flew to water at once and "dived" six times into the water. Circled back to nest, alighted, and covered egg at once (mate being absent). A few moments later the mate returned, would not alight, circled around the nest several times, then sat down near the nest for a long time; then hopped upon the nest and pecked at the marked bird. Sat behind the marked bird for a long time, then both birds began nodding to each other in a very ludicrous fashion. After 40 minutes the unmarked bird crawled upon the egg, the marked bird taking up a position on the rim and nodding to the unmarked bird. One minute later it again flew to the water and began diving. Two minutes later it returned and alighted near the nest. No further family dissension seemed to be caused by the dye.

Noddy No. 2.—The behavior here was in marked contrast to the above. No. 2 was likewise released 30 feet from the nest. Flew immediately to

nest and covered egg (mate being absent). Both the noddies and the sooties in the vicinity of this nest were badly frightened by this bird. The mate on returning flew round and round the nest, but would not alight near it. The mate would circle out over the water and then back to the nest. Finally the unmarked bird alighted near the nest and fought off an intruder. The unmarked bird sat near the nest, but made no attempt for a long time to take its turn upon the egg. The marked bird became restless under these circumstances. It would hop up and expose the egg, turning round and round and make signs by nodding the head to the passive mate sitting nearby. The mate made tentative efforts to approach closer to the nest and seemed almost persuaded to take its turn, but the relief was not finally effected until 3 hours had passed.

These two tests as they stand prove nothing definitely. They only suggest that any change in the visual appearance of the birds breaks down the customary and habitual responses which take place between birds attached to a single nest.[1] It occurred to me afterwards that since the noddy has become accustomed to the appearance of the sooty, it would have been a more reliable test had I painted the noddy in the guise of the sooty. The vivid red, if the birds sense color-tone (or even the changed brightness) obviously might have been exciting and might have aroused fear. It is just possible that if I had modified the appearance of the two noddies by painting them with different shades of gray that the change in the visual appearance might not have been noticed by the mates on their return.

TESTS WITH SOOTIES AS TO RECOGNITION BETWEEN MATES.

A similar test was made upon the sooty. Two birds were captured at marked nests, the night before the day upon which the tests were to be made. The white throat, breast, and spaces between the eyes of sooty No. 1 were completely covered with burnt sienna (in oil). Sooty No. 2 was painted as No. 1, but with permanent blue instead of burnt sienna.

Sooty No. 1.—Mate on egg. Marked bird tried to alight. All the sooties nesting in the vicinity flew up, raising a tremendous uproar. The bird alighted within a foot of its nest. Its mate and all the other sooties nearby drove the bird away from the nest vicinity, striking it violently with their beaks. It flew away, but returned in 8 minutes. While in the air it called to the mate (still upon the nest), mate got on feet, answered the call, showing evident signs that the call was recognized. Marked bird again alighted within a foot of nest. Violent commotion was again raised in the colony. Mate struck the marked bird violently with the beak and drove it away. Marked bird tried several other times to alight near the nest, but this was not permitted. Wherever in the whole island this bird tried to alight, commotion was aroused. It then disappeared from the island, after vainly trying for 3 hours to approach the nest. It did not appear again that day in the vicinity of its nest. The following morning, however, the marked bird was calmly brooding the egg.

[1] There is a possibility, too, that the disturbance might have been due partially at least to the olfactory characteristics of the dyes.

Sooty No. 2.—This bird was carried to a position within 20 feet of its nest and released there. The mate was not present. The marked bird, instead of going directly to the nest and covering the egg, alighted some 10 or 15 feet from it and attempted to walk past other nests in the vicinity. A commotion was immediately raised. The other birds brooding their eggs left them to attack this strange object. This bird ran rapidly out of my sight, being fought at every step, and disappeared for 10 minutes. At the end of that time I saw it approaching its nest. Three feet away from its nest it was halted by a row of hostile beaks. It left again and at the end of half an hour put in an appearance. Again it could not reach its nest. (A rather amusing incident occurred at this point. A noddy in search of a stick alighted near this marked sooty. The noddy is usually utterly oblivious to the presence of the sooty when in search of his precious sticks. Such was not the case in the present instance. He dropped his stick, peered at the sooty, extending his head toward it and craning his neck in a most peculiar and unwonted fashion.) After some 2 hours had passed this bird finally reached its nest and covered the egg. The mate on returning[1] showed evident signs of restlessness and disturbance, but finally took up a standing position near the nest. At my approach some 2 hours later the unmarked bird crawled from the nest and the marked bird crawled on. Evidently the family difference had been satisfactorily arranged.

These tests upon the marked sooties, in so far as they show anything of a satisfactory nature, lead us to believe that a change in the visual appearance of the bird is immediately noticed both by its mate and by the other sooties on the island. The disturbance caused by the appearance of these strangely marked birds was very much more pronounced than was the case with the noddies. Such experiments naturally leave the problem of recognition of mate by mate almost untouched. It is a problem, however, which I believe can be attacked experimentally.

TESTS ON RECOGNITION OF THE EGG.

Since the nest is also accurately localized by both the noddy and the sooty, I desired to test whether the egg, the nest, and the nest locality were all of importance in this reaction. I made tentative efforts to arrive at some conclusion as regards this question.

As a preliminary step I colored the eggs of both the noddy and the sooty and then watched their reactions under the changed conditions. The noddy eggs were colored with vermilion, blue-green, and violet aniline dyes. The birds immediately covered these eggs without the slightest change in their behavior being apparent. Eggs similarly colored with Higgins' black ink produced no disturbance. Hen eggs and sooty eggs and eggs made of magnesium sulphate were likewise accepted without question.

In this connection, an interesting incidental observation was made. A noddy before it lays its egg has habits different from those which char-

[1] Since the bird was released in the morning, I was forced to sit near this nest until the mate returned—about 8 hours later!

acterize it after the egg is laid (see p. 201). I found that by putting an egg in the nest of such a "laying" noddy, I could change its habits from those of a "layer" to those of a "sitter." One can observe under such circumstances an almost immediate change in the general disposition of the birds. Before the egg is put down in the nest, the bird, which may be sitting on a nearby limb, will fly away at the slightest disturbance. When the egg is put into the nest, the bird on returning will alight near the nest and sit stolidly on a limb as before. Suddenly it is visually stimulated by the egg. It peers down at it, extending the head and withdrawing it, turning the head slightly to one side. It then alights on the nest. Contact with the egg seems immediately to change the disposition of the bird. The bird will now remain upon the nest, "rattling" in its gruff, hoarse way, and attempting to strike if one approaches too near. The reverse of the above behavior can be noticed if the egg is removed from the nest of some bird, even if it has been sitting on the egg for several days and consequently has had exercise in all the instinctive activities present during the brooding-season.

The sooty reacts quite differently to colored eggs. They were dyed with the same dyes as were the noddy eggs. These tests were made upon three separate parts of the island. The sooties on returning and finding the colored eggs exhibited signs of great uneasiness. They walked round and round them, poked them with their beaks, rolled them out of the nest and then rolled them back. In one set of tests the eggs colored with vermilion dye were absolutely rejected. In another set of tests, made with different birds, vermilion was accepted; green was not accepted in one case, but in two other tests it was accepted. The black egg was rejected in one case, but was accepted in two other cases. On the whole, each color and black was accepted, but in every set of tests at least one of the dyed eggs was rejected. In one case the bird whose nest contained the vermilion egg dug a new nest alongside of the old one and made nearly 100 trips between the old nest and the new. They, however, accepted each other's eggs and noddy eggs without question. One sooty sat down immediately upon its nest after a hen egg had been put there in place of its own. Several days later, on again examining this nest, I found that the hen egg had been pushed aside and a new sooty egg deposited.

From these experiments on the dyed eggs, it becomes apparent:

(1) Under the conditions of the above test the noddy is not at all affected by changing the hue, brightness, and markings of its egg.

(2) The sooty is affected by changing the visual appearance of its egg, but whether in the latter case the disturbance was due to the change in brightness or the change in hue or in marking, is not determined by the above experiments.

(3) Neither the noddy nor the sooty recognizes its own egg.

TESTS WITH NODDIES ON RECOGNITION OF THE NEST AND NEST LOCALITY.

The nest of the noddy is not individually recognized. I found that I could exchange a large nest for a small one or *vice versa;* that I could tear out the old nest and construct a rough one of bay-cedar limbs, etc., without the noddy's reactions being in the least affected. I then made tests of the following kind upon the nest locality, one of which I shall cite in detail:

An isolated noddy nest, placed in the crotch of a limb near the stem of the bush, was moved 3 feet farther out on the limb, but was still left in plain sight. The noddy, on returning, flew to the old position of the nest. After some delay it alighted on the nest. It then flew back to the old position. It then flew to a limb a few inches above the old position of the nest and waited there for a time. It then made 9 trips between the old position of the nest and the new. After half an hour it settled down in the nest in the new position and remained quietly brooding the egg for a few minutes. It then became uneasy, got up, and made several more trips to the old position and back to the new. Finally it settled down upon the nest in the new position and made no further attempt to return to the old position of the nest. I next made it a nest out of bay-cedar limbs and put it in the old position, putting therein a sooty egg which I found at hand. On returning, the bird naturally had the choice of going to its old nest and its own egg in the new position, or going to a makeshift nest containing a sooty egg in the old position. It went immediately to the old position and settled down on the sooty egg with apparent satisfaction. These tests were repeated on other noddies with similar results.

I conclude from these possibly insufficient data that the nest locality exerts the stimulus for nest orientation and that the nest and egg as such are not important factors in this situation. Whether or not this return to the old position is accomplished in terms of visual data, my experiments do not show. Provided the one limb is left which supports the nest, the rest of the bush and the surrounding bushes may be cut away and the whole visual environment greatly altered without the birds' reactions being changed in the least.

TESTS WITH SOOTIES ON RECOGNITION OF THE NEST AND NEST LOCALITY.

The study of nest and nest locality recognition are the most interesting problems in the study of the life of the sooty. If one recalls the conditions under which they lay their eggs, namely, in open spaces and at distances apart sometimes not greater than 10 to 14 inches, one can not but admire the exactness and ease with which the sooty approaches its own nest. I have made numerous experiments upon the distance to which the sooty nest can be moved without disturbing the habitual adjustment of the birds to it. These tests, while not satisfactory as regards the determining of the sensory factors entering into this function, at least will serve to show the nicety with which the sooty makes its adjustments to the nest locality.

Fig. 19. The strutting movements of the male Sooty.

Fig. 20. The two Sooties on the left of the cut are beginning to fight.

Fig. 21. Flashlight of Nesting Sooties To show possibility of studying behavior at night.

EXPERIMENT I.

(*a*) An isolated nest under a bush was chosen for purposes of experimentation. Nest was left intact, but the egg was removed and placed in a new nest dug 18 cm. due north. Bird returned to the old nest and stood impassive. Attempted to settle down on the nest and to poke egg, then looked up and saw egg, crawled over to it and sat down upon it. Bird got up and adjusted the egg and nest elaborately. Time for adjustment to situation, 30 minutes.

(*b*) I then allowed the bird 30 minutes at the new nest. At the end of this time I scared it away and placed its egg back in the old position, putting another sooty egg in the nest I had made. Result: Bird went back to old nest and covered egg without so much as looking in the direction of the new nest.

(*c*) Experiment (*a*) was repeated with similar results.

(*d*) Twenty minutes allowed for repose after above experiment. New nest No. 2 was then made 18 cm. due west of new nest No. 1. Result: Bird went back to original nest, shaped the nest, and scratched around in it and then walked over to new nest No. 2 and sat down on egg after adjusting it.

(*e*) Twenty minutes again allowed bird in this position. I then frightened it away and noted the pathway of return. The bird walked by old nest, inclined toward it slightly, then walked on directly to the egg in new nest No. 2.

EXPERIMENT II.

A nest in the sand in an open space was chosen. A large tuft of grass was situated near. This made a very prominent visual characteristic. I pulled up the tuft of grass, obliterated the old nest (marking it with a pebble), making a new nest 88 cm. due north of the old, inserting the tuft of grass as nearly as I could in the same relations to the new nest as it stood to the old. Bird on returning *stood for 8 minutes at old nest, then put down beak and attempted to arrange the egg just as though it were present.* Later, bird walked over to the new nest, partially sat down, then got up and went back to the old nest, turned round and round in the exact position of the old nest, walked over to the new nest, arranged the egg, went back to the old nest, remained there at a loss for several minutes, turning head round and settling down with body exactly as though egg were present, then went over to the new nest and sat on the egg for a moment or two, then back again to the old nest. Finally adjusted the new nest elaborately and remained there in peace. I then frightened it away. On returning, it repeated the above reactions, but with fewer trial movements. A second time I scared it away; again it returned to old nest and tried to get contact with egg. This second time it stood at the old nest for a long time, fighting all the other birds away. Finally, at the end of 10 minutes again walked over to the new nest and sat down. I scared it away again after allowing it to sit on the new nest for 12 minutes. Bird gone for 30 seconds. On returning, alighted from the air exactly upon the center of the old nest and again tried to adjust to nest in the old way. At end of 1 minute and 35 seconds waddled over and sat down on egg in new position. Was driven away again after 10 minutes of repose. Again alighted upon old position. Repeated it again; again alighted on old nest, but this time left it for the new in 12 seconds. Again alighted near old nest, ran to it and stopped there for an instant, passing rapidly on to new nest. Again alighted on old nest, but

found new in 10 seconds. This routine was repeated 16 times, practically an afternoon's work, without the bird adjusting itself perfectly at any time to the new situation.

I repeated the above tests on 3 other birds which were nesting out in the open spaces, with absolutely identical results. In other cases I found that the nests could not be moved in any lateral direction for more than a few centimeters without the birds being badly disturbed. As a control test to the above I obliterated several nests and then redug them in the old positions. In no case were the birds disturbed by this.

EXPERIMENT III.

A nest was chosen in an open space, but very close to some bushes. I obliterated the nest as the bird had constructed it, inserted a black pan, filled this with sand, and constructed a nest inside of it. This gave me an opportunity to move the nest *upward* as well as laterally. On returning the bird alighted on the nest without showing any signs of disturbance. An hour later I came back and pulled the pan out of the sand and put a few sticks under it. The bird returned, but was not disturbed by this slight change. I then drove in four stakes 10 cm. high and mounted the pan thereon. This served to raise the nest upward without disturbing the other relations of the nest. The bird on returning *alighted immediately on nest.* The other birds gathered around, craning their necks and peering upward. The bird then stood up and came to the edge of the pan and peered down. This seemed to disturb it and it flew to the ground, but hopped up again immediately, covered the egg and sat there in comfort the rest of the day. Raising the nest 10 cm. in the air requires almost no adjustment on the part of the bird. On account of a storm on the island, which lasted for 2 days, no further experiments were made at this time on this nest. I next raised this nest 100 cm.; *bird alighted immediately squarely on top of the nest;* did not make a false movement. On craning neck over the edge of the pan a little later, however, became disturbed and alighted on the ground, and remained there for 45 minutes without attempting again to get on nest. I forced bird to fly up. Again alighted on the nest and began to brood the egg in comfort. On my return several hours later it was still sitting quietly on nest.

On the second day after this (when this same bird was at the nest again) I lowered the nest back to 10 cm., its first vertical position. On returning the bird alighted squarely on the nest, making perfect adjustment. I scared the bird away. On its return the bird again adjusted accurately. I next moved the nest back to the height of 100 cm. Bird returned and alighted on egg and adjusted to it before I could get back to my position in the bushes. Adjustment in the vertical plane is made with exceeding rapidity and ease.

I then moved the nest 100 cm. to the east, leaving it 100 cm. above the ground. Behavior of bird very interesting. Would not alight on nest. Alighted at the former ground position. After a long time flew from the old position and up to new position of nest. Immediately hopped down and began a most peculiar performance. *Bird would hover in space, attempting to adjust to the nest in the air at its former position and height.* It would then fly away again and come back to the old position and try to alight in space. This was done 20 times. At the end of 20 minutes the bird

alighted upon the pan in its new position and sat down on egg. I then scared the bird away, 5 successive times, to see if it would alight immediately upon the pan. Each time on returning the bird alighted at the old ground position and proceeded from this point to the new position of the nest.

I then put the pan back in its old position. Bird returned and alighted on pan immediately. In this position I then raised the pan to a height of 200 cm. This raised the nest well up above any of the surrounding bushes. This did not cause the bird the slightest disturbance. I forced it to make three or four adjustments to the nest in immediate succession. It made them all with equal precision.

I continued my experiments on this bird in a similar way for several days and by repeatedly moving the nest now to the east, now to the west, etc., I succeeded in getting the bird to the point where it would immediately adjust to the nest regardless of its position.[1]

As was the case with the noddy, I found that the nest environment could be markedly altered without the bird's being disturbed in the slightest so long as the position of the nest was not disturbed.

SUMMARY.

In the case of both the noddy and the sooty, the nest locality is the important factor, the nest itself being reacted to by virtue of its location within this locality. Since environment can be greatly changed without disturbing the bird's accurate adjustment to the nest, it is evident that if the adjustment is made in terms of visual data the visual environment which serves as the stimulus must be complex and have a wide extension. I am not prepared to admit from the above experiments that adjustment takes place in terms of vision alone.

SOME EXPERIMENTS ON DISTANT ORIENTATION.

In the present connection, I shall not take up in detail the various theories concerning the factors entering into distant orientation. Anyone familiar with the literature on the subject knows that the facts, as well as the theories, are in a chaotic state. I wish in the present instance to present a few facts bearing upon the subject. It is generally supposed that the homing pigeon possesses the function of orienting itself from a distance in a higher degree than any other animal. It is also supposed that even in the case of the pigeon training is necessary in order to get the bird to return to its home from a distance. The method[2] usually adopted is, first, to allow the bird to get thoroughly habituated to its cote; then at successive trials the bird is allowed to return to its nest from distances beginning at 0.125 mile, then

[1] These tests are all confined to a radius of some 4 to 5 meters. I had intended carrying the test further to see if I could force the establishment of so strong an association that I could move nest from one part of island to another, but a storm which continued for several days made it impossible to continue the work.

[2] Hodge: Method of Homing Pigeons; Popular Science Monthly, April, 1894, pp. 758–776.

from 0.5 mile and so on. In a short time the bird, on account of the increasing distances to which it is carried, combined with its keenness of vision, establishes visual landmarks throughout an enormous territory. A well-trained carrier pigeon could thus hardly be taken into a neighborhood which would be entirely new to it. This presupposes on the part of the bird the ability to establish visual associations at an enormous rate. All the laboratory tests which animal psychologists have made upon pigeons so far seem to show that the pigeon has no extraordinary ability to establish such associations.[1]

It occurred to me that any migrating bird ought to possess the function of distant orientation. As a test I made the following experiments:

EXPERIMENT I.

Six noddies were captured one evening and marked characteristically and individually with oil paints. These birds were put on board the laboratory launch, which happened to be making a trip to Key West on the following morning. The nests of these birds were all close together and were tagged with a large card in order to facilitate observation. Two of the birds were released at Rebecca Shoal Light, 31.38 km. (19.5 statute miles) from Bird Key; two at Marquesas, 72.75 km. (44.75 statute miles); and two at Key West, 106.02 km. (65.8 statute miles).

I kept their nests under constant observation the whole day long. Naturally, since the birds had been without food for some time, and since I had no guarantee that they would immediately seek the nest after reaching the island, I expected the return to the nest to be irregular. The results were as follows:

The two Rebecca birds, released at 9^h 30^m a. m., returned about 12 m.

The two Marquesas birds, released at 2^h 15^m p. m., returned together at 4 p. m.

The two Key West birds were released at 6^h 30^m p. m. One returned at 7^h 30^m a. m. the next day, the other at 5^h 05^m p. m. These two birds, bearing out my statement that these terns do not fly at night, probably slept in the neighborhood of Key West and left early the next morning. A heavy gale and rainstorm set in very shortly after these birds were released and I doubted very seriously whether they would ever return. Apparently one of the birds was not affected by the storm, while the other was probably blown from its course.

The respective mates of these birds remained on the eggs the entire time, going neither for food nor water (?).

EXPERIMENT II.

Three noddies and two sooties (one of the sooties was known to be a male) were captured and marked as above. Their nests were likewise prominently marked. On the early morning of Thursday, June 13, these birds were put into a large insect cage and given in charge of Dr. H. E. Jordan, who was returning to New York. He carried these birds *via* the

[1] See Rouse: The Mental Life of the Domestic Pigeon, Harvard Psychological Studies, II, pp. 581–613, and Porter: Further Study of the English Sparrow and Other Birds, Amer. Jour. of Psy., vol. XVII, pp. 248–271.

government tug to Key West. There food was purchased for them (minnows). At 3 a. m., Friday the 14th, Dr. Jordan boarded the Mallory boat *Denver,* which left at that time for New York. On board the boat the birds were both watered and fed. On Sunday, the 16th, at 9^h 20^m a. m., the birds were released at lat. 35° 8′, long. 75° 10′ (12 miles east of Cape Hatteras approximately). The wind was fair and fresh for several days after the birds were released. I kept their nests under constant observation, but had almost given up hope of their returning when, to my surprise, on June 21, at 8^h 30^m a. m., I found both marked sooties on their respective nests.

None of the marked noddies was ever found at its old nest, but several days after the sooties had been observed at their nests, by chance I observed one of my marked noddies attempting to alight on its nest. On account of the mate having formed new "affiliations" this was not permitted, and I immediately lost track of the bird.[1] I have little doubt that the other noddies also returned to the island, but likewise were not permitted to return to their nests.

The distance from Hatteras to Bird Key in a straight line is approximately 1367.9 km. (850 statute miles). The alongshore route, which is the one in all probability chosen by the birds on their return, since they were gone several *nights,* is approximately 1739.6 km. (1,081 statute miles).[2]

EXPERIMENT III.

On Monday, July 8, two noddies and two sooties were captured and marked and given into the charge of Dr. Hartmeyer, who was returning to Germany by way of Havana. The birds were in such poor condition, owing to the enormous strain of several days' feeding of their then quite large young, that we decided to release them at Havana instead of taking them farther out. On the 9th the birds were carried by Dr. Hartmeyer on board the Government tug and taken to Key West, where they spent the night and part of the following day, the 10th. They were carried in Dr. Hartmeyer's stateroom to Havana on the night of the 10th. Early in the morning of the 11th the birds were released in Havana Harbor. All returned to Bird Key on the 12th. Since they had had to spend three days without food or water, they were in poor physical condition. They probably spent one day and night around the shores of Cuba, leaving there early

[1] At one of the sooty nests the egg had hatched. The egg at the other nest had hatched before the bird was captured. Apparently the 2 sooties which were left at the nests cared for the young birds without aid from the outside, the young being simply left in the nest while the parent sought the food. The behavior of the noddies left at home presents an interesting contrast to the "faithfulness" of the sooties. After 3 days had passed, one of the noddies took a new mate. At the other 2 nests one of the most peculiar incidents of my stay was happening. These two nests were in the same bush, one about 6 inches above the other. Both the birds remained stolidly on their nests for 48 hours without going for food; they then began leaving the nest regularly for food and water, brooding the egg and feeding at intervals closely approximating the normal. Finally the bird in the upper nest began bringing food to the bird in the nest below. Each time on bringing the food, the bird from the upper nest would nod and bill and coo to the bird below—reactions wholly similar to those engaged in by newly mated pairs. The eggs in both nests were neglected, no effort being made to keep them constantly covered. Sometimes the bird from the upper nest would spend a half hour or more in the lower nest. Sometimes the bird in the lower nest would spend its time in the upper nest. Again at times both birds would be away from the nests simultaneously.

[2] It might be well to mention that the birds were transported in the hold of the *Denver.*

in the morning of the following day. The noddies were observed on their nests at 7 a.m., while the sooties were noted for the first time at 6^h 30^m p. m., of the same day.

The distance in a straight line from Havana to Bird Key is approximately 173.8 km. (108 statute miles).

I think that these tests are significant. The return from Cape Hatteras is really startling. Cape Hatteras is hundreds of miles outside the range of distribution of the noddy and sooty terns. If my statement that the birds rarely leave the island for distances greater than 15 knots for purposes of feeding corresponds with the facts, it becomes extremely improbable that they could have formed visual associations throughout such a vast territory as that described in these experiments. While these experiments are not in any way crucial, the facts obtained from them are extremely difficult for current theories of distant orientation to explain.[1]

SOME PRELIMINARY EXPERIMENTS WITH SOOTIES UPON THE LEARNING OF PROBLEM BOXES.

In all the following experiments, small wire boxes were put down over the egg and the bird was forced to overcome certain difficulties before it could reach the egg. The experiments will show that this method could have been used with profit if time had permitted. On account of the difficulty of making suitable problem boxes, our experiments are of a very rough and ready kind.

Experiment I.

A simple labyrinth was placed over a sooty nest. This labyrinth offered only one blind alley, but the bird was forced to change its direction three times and traverse a distance of about 3 feet before it reached its egg.

The movements of the sooty when this situation confronts it are characteristic. It first takes up a position which offers the plainest view of the egg and then attempts to push its head straight through the meshes of the wire. Leaving this position, it walks around and around the labyrinth as a whole and makes no attempt to enter the open door, although the latter is made very prominent by virtue of its being marked with two large upright sticks. The first four or five trials consumed about an hour each, the birds working persistently most of the time. So little improvement was manifested and the test bade fair to consume so much time that I abandoned taking continuous notes upon it. I left the simple labyrinth in place, however. By the end of 3 days, both male and female had adjusted themselves perfectly to it and could go in and out with rapidity, but when

[1] When I left the island I carried a noddy to a distance of 40 miles in order to observe its behavior during the trip. The bird was turning in a circle, twisting, and poking at the mesh of the wire cage incessantly. The turns and movements of the vessel did not influence the movements of the bird in the least, so far as I could observe. When released the bird flew down near the surface of the water and started in the direction of home. Dr. Mayer informed me that this bird returned to its nest. Reynaud's law of "contre-pied" has in my opinion not the slightest basis in fact. In order to duplicate in reverse order on its return all the movements made on the outgoing trip the bird would have had to fly back, revolving mainly in a circle!

I attempted to get accurate tests of their time the birds became excited and tried to go through the meshes as before.

EXPERIMENT II.

The following series of experiments was tried upon a marked male sooty. A cubical wire box, 35 by 30 by 25 cm., was inverted over the nest. A simple opening, 9 by 12 cm., gave access to the egg. This opening was placed due west.

The male on returning trotted round and round the box; found the door in 3 minutes; was uneasy; attempted to get out but could not find opening. Stuck his beak in and out between the meshes. Became excited and tore at the wire with beak for several minutes. A slight disturbance in the neighborhood at which the other birds flew up caused him to redouble his efforts to escape. Got out at the end of 14 minutes. Walked away for a foot or two, trotted in again immediately. Was uneasy and came out again, this time without useless movement. On trying to reenter a moment later, he missed the opening and went halfway round the box and returned before entering. Out again immediately. In returning again missed his way in and went three-fourths around the box, turned and entered. This time he turned the egg with his beak, but would not sit down upon it. Out again immediately. Entered after a few useless movements. Tried to come out again immediately, became confused and fought the wire. Stopped to adjust the egg, but again would not sit down. Came out again immediately, then entered and sat upon the egg, this time in apparent comfort. The box with its opening produced no further disturbance. Time for adjustment to new situation under above conditions, 30 minutes.

I left the box in position the rest of the day. On the following morning, since the marked bird was still on the nest, I carried this test further by piling up loose sand around the entrance. The bird on returning was not in the least frightened by the change. Went immediately to the door, but finding the sand, walked round and round the cage trying to force his way through the meshes of the wire. Tried to get into door again and again, but would not scratch at the sand. Divided his time pretty well between the east side of the box, where the egg could easily be seen, and the west side, where he had formerly gained admission. Bird was very persistent, but at times would walk away for a few feet and then run hastily back to the box and continue his useless movements. I then scraped away the sand so as to expose an inch of the opening. The bird alighted and passed by the door again and again. Apparently no perception of the situation as a whole. I then exposed two inches of the opening so that only two inches of sand remained in front of the opening. Under these circumstances, the bird mounted the sand pile again and again and attempted to peck his way through the meshes of the wire above the opening. Finally by accident he poked his head through the opening and squeezed through, making no effort to enlarge the opening. Time of whole experiment, 1 hour.

After 5 minutes I drove the bird away (lifted up the wire box and allowed him to fly) and piled the sand up to the height at which he had previously been successful. Time for adjustment: 1.16 minutes.

I next piled the sand up so as to completely cover the opening again. After 20 minutes of random movement and no success, I scraped away the sand so as to expose one inch of the opening. The bird came up and

with great effort squeezed through the hole in 0.25 minute. I then removed all the sand and left the box in position as before. On the following day, since the unmarked bird (female) was on the nest, no further tests were made upon the male. On the second day from the above I continued my tests.

As in the last test, 2 days before, I first piled up the sand within an inch of the top of the opening. Time for entrance: 2 minutes.

I next piled up the sand so as to completely cover the opening. Finally, after 38 minutes of random movement, while attempting to poke his head through the wire mesh above the opening, he accidentally poked bill and head through the sand pile. Withdrew his head, walked round and round the cage as before, then came back to the hole and poked his head into it six or eight times. This was done apparently simply to get nearer the egg. Success at end of 40 minutes fr[illegible] the beginning of the test. He went to the nest and sat down. Appare[illegible]tly the nest did not suit him as regards depth, for he immediately began to hollow it out by scratching. Apparently the scratching impulse arises [illegible]nly when the bird is at the nest. I think it exceedingly curious that this reaction was not utilized in such situations as the above. No further tests were made on him that day.

Two days later I again took up work with him. I first tested him with the sand left one inch from the top of the opening. Time: 0.20 minute. I next covered entrance over completely. Result: Again many useless movements similar to the ones already described. Time: 7 minutes.

I repeated this. Almost no useless movements. Bird dived at once for the opening, made a small hole, pulled his head out, ran half way round the box and returning squeezed through the opening. Time: 0.66 minute.

Exactly the same procedure was followed with reference to the female with results identical, except that the female uniformly required more time to make the adjustments and was not so active and eager in her movements. From these experiments I concluded (1) that the egg and nest locality may be used in the place of food as a stimulus to the formation of new habits; (2) that the sooty tern can form associations by the trial and error method.

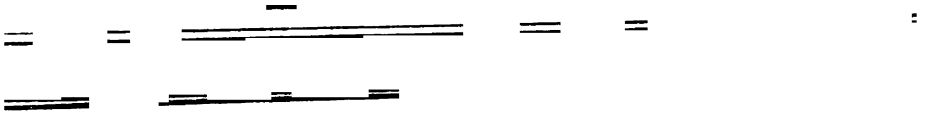
EXPERIMENT III.

After the above tests had been completed I tried the effect of placing the opening of the box in the other cardinal positions (no obstructions being placed to the opening). It must be remembered that all the adjustments of the bird had been made with the opening facing west. The opening was now turned due north.

Results: The bird (male) on returning went immediately to the west, stood for a second and then walked to the south; went back to west, then went to the east, then back again to the west, then went north. The moment he saw the opening he went into it and covered the egg. Time: 0.96 minute. Second trial: Alighted on west, but ran immediately to north. Time: 0.08 minute. Third trial: Bird alighted on south, swerved slightly toward the west, but ran immediately to the north and entered. Time: 0.10 minute.

The opening was then made to face east. Bird alighted at south, went to north by way of west, paused at north, then seeing door to the east dashed into it. Time, 0.10 minute. Second trial: Alighting south, ran to

Fig. 22 The character and grouping of the Nests of the Noddies.



west and fought the wire for 3 seconds, hesitated at the north, then dashed round to the east and into the opening. Time, 0.13 minute.

Opening was then turned south (the bird usually alights at the south). Result: First trial: Ran into opening before I could move away from the nest; not the slightest useless movement. Second trial: Ran into box before I could time him. I repeated the above tests on the female with similar results.

If the behavior of the birds under the conditions of the above test is contrasted with the behavior of the rat under conditions of a similar test, one is struck by the very great rapidity with which the birds make these adjustments. Turning the box as was done above and presenting it to the rat would have caused him the greatest difficulty. I conclude from this that the bird makes these adjustments largely on the basis of visual data, whereas in all probability the rat makes the same adjustment by means of kinæsthetic data.[1]

EXPERIMENT IV.

After these animals had been accustomed to having their nest covered with this box for some 2 or 3 weeks, it occurred to me that if the recognition of the nest is accomplished largely by means of visual data, they ought to react to the box, even though it were moved from place to place without being disturbed very markedly by the change so long as it was not carried outside of their range of vision from the point where they alight. The box was first moved 88 cm. due north (entrance west as usual), while the egg and nest were left in the old position.

Result: The bird (male) sat on the egg immediately without so much as looking at the box, which was in plain sight 88 cm. to the north. After sitting on the egg for a moment, the bird became uneasy, left the egg and went over to the box and entered it, and then returned to the egg. He repeated this procedure three or four times. On the last two trips, after entering the box and not finding the egg, went round and round the box. While he was doing this the female, which was standing on guard nearby (up to this time inactive, however,) rushed over to the egg and covered it. The male came back and drove her away and remained in comfort on the egg.

I then went to the box, scooped out a nest in the ground inclosed by it, and put in an egg from a nearby nest. Result: Returned and sat on his own egg, but craned his neck and peered at the box, showing evident signs of "interest" in the box.

I next removed his own nest, leaving the box as in the above test. Result: Bird ran first to box, then back to old position of nest. He turned round and round in this spot, attempting to find egg. He then dashed for the box, entered and sat on egg, but was not quite comfortable and kept peering out the door and into the corners of the box. He then got up, walked around the cage once or twice, came back to the egg and adjusted it, and sat down in apparent comfort. Time for this readjustment: 0.66 minute.

[1] Watson, John B. Kinæsthetic and Organic Sensations, etc. Monograph Suppl. Psy. Rev., No. 33, p. 85.

If the behavior of this bird be contrasted with that of others whose nests had been disturbed (p. 225), it will be found that his readjustment to the nest in a new situation was very much more rapid than in the case of the former. Apparently, a partial but incomplete visual association had been established between the nest and the box. It is clear in this test that if recognition of the nest is not accomplished entirely by means of visual data, such data can nevertheless play the fundamental rôle under certain conditions.

EXPERIMENT V.

A heavy focusing cloth of rubber was placed over the box, leaving only the entrance, which was west, uncovered. The egg could be seen dimly, but the rest of the box was extremely dark. In order to see the egg the bird would now have to approach the nest and go very close to the door.

Result: Bird apparently frightened at the dark object as a whole. Hovered over the box, but would not alight. Finally alighted and went up to within one foot of the entrance and peered in. His reactions were very curious. Went over to east corner of cage, peered at the covering, then backed off. Approached the entrance and peered in. Started in, but his courage deserted him. He did not go round and round as formerly. This probably was because the visual stimulus of the egg was cut off. He finally poked his bill into the door, pulled his head back, then began a curious procedure of flying 10 feet away and flying back to the nest, repeating this in rapid succession. In conscious terms, this behavior suggested that the original orientation was in some way recognized by the bird as being wrong, and that by leaving and again approaching the bird sought to secure better orientation. This lends support to my statements above that if the stimulus to the nest depends upon visual factors the latter must be complex. The bird then came to the door, stood near it, poked head in and withdrew it, repeating this 15 times without moving from his position. At the end of half an hour he entered and stayed for a moment, but rushed out again. Entered two or three times again, but would not remain. At the end of 45 minutes, after many such timid entrances, the bird walked in and sat down in comfort. I scared him away. He returned immediately and brooded the egg. He had become entirely adapted to the changed conditions.

These experiments, inconclusive and unsatisfactory as they are, nevertheless show that a definite question has been raised concerning the *modus operandi* of nest recognition and nest orientation, which is entirely open to experimental treatment. They likewise show that the nest locality, whatever may be the stimulating factors present, may be used at will as a stimulus in controlling the reactions of the birds.

SOME PRELIMINARY EXPERIMENTS WITH NODDIES UPON THE LEARNING OF PROBLEM BOXES.

A few experiments similar to the above were tried on the noddies. A cubical box, 45 cm. to the side, made of wire mesh (12 mm.), was inverted over the nests of noddies built near the ground. A 9 by 12 cm. opening was inserted in one side of the box on a level with the top of the nest. The

noddies were allowed to accustom themselves to entering and leaving the nest by way of the opening. When they had become thoroughly accustomed to the box it was possible to interpose obstacles in the way of their adjustments to the nest, by putting certain simple obstructions at the opening. Only enough tests were made to prove the applicability of this method for controlling the reactions of the noddies. The following extracts from my notes show the behavior of the birds in adjusting to the box when no obstructions were interposed at the door:

Both birds present (one marked). They alighted on top of the box and attempted to poke heads through the meshes of the wire. After 15 minutes of random effort, the marked bird found the entrance and immediately covered the egg. I scared this bird out and before it returned the unmarked bird found the entrance and covered the egg. Both birds adapted themselves to the situation very quickly.

After allowing the birds several days in which to get entirely accustomed to the box, a white bristol board sector was inclined at an angle to the cage entirely covering the entrance when approached from the front. The end of the cardboard, which rested on the ground, was pointed so that when the cardboard was struck or pushed it would fall over, thus exposing the entrance.

First trial: Bird alighted on a limb very near to the entrance and stood for a moment, then flew away. Returned and alighted as before, opened its mouth and gazed at the egg in a stupid, inert way. After standing for some time the bird again flew away and again returned. This was repeated four times. It then began flying away and returning to the top of the cage. This behavior of flying out over the water and returning to some new position on the cage was repeated many, many times. At last it alighted on the perch and stuck its beak in at the crack made by the cardboard's being inclined at an angle to the opening. By degrees the cardboard was pushed aside and the bird entered. Time: 41 minutes.

Second trial: (10 minutes later). Flew against the cardboard, attempting to insert beak at the same time. Repeated several times. This was a clumsy but ingenious method. Time: 15 minutes.

Third trial: (One day later). Alighted on top of the box, flew away, returned, then flew at the door as in the last test, pecked in a slow and foolish fashion, finally pecked it open. Time: 1 hour.

Fourth trial: (10 minutes later). Many trial movements as in the above case. Time: 1 hour and 15 minutes.

Fifth trial: (One day later). (Egg had hatched during night.) Bird flew at door, mate sat stupidly on top of box. Flew against the door again, finally opened it by this means. Time: 13 minutes.

Sixth trial: (10 minutes later). Many useless movements as before. The bird still attempted to remove the obstruction by flying against it. If this failed it fought at the wires on top of the cage. Mate stood stupidly on top of the box the whole time, but made no effort to imitate, follow or assist the marked bird. The cardboard was finally knocked down with the wings. Time: 16 minutes.

Seventh trial: (One day later). After flying against it several times the cardboard fell. Time: 6 minutes.

Eighth trial: (Immediately afterwards). Very definitely done. Time: 3 minutes.

Ninth trial: (Immediately afterwards). Shoved cardboard aside with beak. Time: 0.16 minute.

Tenth trial: (Immediately afterwards). Opened with beak. Time: 0.16 minute.

The above experiment was repeated on the mate (unmarked) of this bird. Its time was very much better than that of the marked bird.

First trial: Flew against the cardboard and knocked it over immediately. Time: 5 minutes.

Second trial: Flew against it vigorously. The wind assisted it. Time: 7 minutes.

Third trial: This bird worked ten times harder than mate. Flew against the cardboard very definitely. Time: 3 minutes.

Fourth trial: Not a useless movement. Time: 0.10 minute.

Fifth trial: Interrupted work twice to drink. Time: 3.50 minutes.

The above trials were all given on the first day and in immediate succession. This change in method was necessitated by the increasing shortness of my stay.

Sixth trial: (One day later). Flew against cardboard, the wind aiding it. Time: 1.50 minutes. On account of the wind, no further tests were made that day. The heavy winds continued for six days and the experiments had to be discontinued.

Seventh trial: (Six days later). Opened by flying against it. Time: 6.50 minutes.

Eighth trial: Opened by flying against it. Time: 9.68 minutes.

Ninth trial: (One day later). Time: 7 minutes.

Tenth trial: Time: 1 minute.

Eleventh trial: Time: 0.75 minute.

No further tests were made on this bird. Useless movements were rapidly eliminated during the first five trials given on the first day. Apparently these five tests and the one given on the following day were not sufficient to fix the association definitely enough for it to be carried over the six days in which no trials were given. The test is suggestive of a very low order of retentiveness.

Other problems were submitted to the noddies in a similar way, but the results were not sufficiently definite to report. In conclusion, however, we may say that the above method ought to be one of great importance in observing the reactions of the noddies under conditions of control. By it I am sure that in the end we may gain a knowledge of the variety and the complexity of the problems which the noddy can learn. The method would work equally well with respect to the length of time which such associations can be retained.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE YOUNG NODDY IN CAPTIVITY.

The following study of the development of the young terns in captivity is based both upon field observations and upon the observation of young birds reared in captivity. I was enabled to rear 3 young noddies and 8 young sooties from birth to 30 days of age.[1] At the end of 30 days they were still in good health, but I was forced to leave the island on the 18th of July, consequently my observations are concerned only with these first 30 days of the life of the young terns.[2]

On account of the great difficulty of securing suitable food, the rearing of the young terns entailed enormous labor both on my own part and on that of my servant. Each morning it was necessary to take a seine and a power-boat in order to catch a supply of minnows for the day. During the first few days of their lives, the young terns can swallow only very small, perfectly smooth fish. In order to keep the fish in good condition it was necessary to tow a live-fish car with us, into which the minnows could be emptied as soon as caught. During the first week, the young birds were fed about five times a day. This consumed an enormous amount of time. Each bird had to be fed individually and only one fish at a time could be given. When one considers that a young, live, healthy tern can eat from 12 to 40 minnows a day, depending upon the age of the bird and the size of the minnows, one can form some notion of the labor entailed in rearing the birds. The main difficulty we experienced was in catching the fish. On stormy days it was almost impossible to seine successfully, and even on some fair days, for some inexplicable reason, the fish were not to be found near the shore on any of the islands. As the season advanced, the minnows became scarcer and scarcer. The fact of the increasing scarcity of fish during July and August will be a serious handicap in the future for anyone who may desire to rear these birds and observe their growth for a longer period of time than the above.

First day:

The young noddies began to appear on the island about June 9 (1907).[3] The first few hours after birth they are extremely helpless. During the first day of their life they exhibit few signs of fear, making little effort to shrink away from the hand. However, their eyes are very mobile. The 8 young birds which I observed on the first day were able at 5 hours of age to maintain the head and body fairly well in a standing position. At the

[1] I began with 8 noddies and 12 sooties, but owing to my attempting to feed them upon "salted fish" during a scarcity of live fish, 5 noddies and 4 sooties died.

[2] The photographs of the young terns serve roughly to show some of the stages in their development during the period in which they were under observation. Sooties 1 day, 3 days, 8 days, and 30 days of age are shown on plate 3. Noddies 1, 3, 18, and 30 days of age are shown on plates 4 and 5.

[3] About 65 per cent of the young are born with black plumage, the other 35 per cent are born almost pure white. Thinking this might mean a sexual difference, I asked Dr. Charles R. Stockard to make an anatomical investigation. It appeared that the color at birth is not correlated with sex.

end of the first day the birds were able to stand fairly erect and to move their heads with some freedom, following my pen-point with both head and eyes when it was moved in front of their heads. When taken from the nest and put upon the floor, the birds showed a marked tendency to shrink when the shadow of the hand was thrown across the head. As I write with one upon the table before me, it is pecking vigorously at my fingers. Pecked once at a large spot on the table, then at its toe. They show no fear at being handled. They can not swim at the end of the first day. They were tried first in fresh water. No coördination of limbs was present. Head could not be held up and birds began to sink rapidly. Water caused defecation in one case and disgorgement in another (they had been left with the parent for 5 hours). The movements used in disgorgement were as rhythmical and perfect almost as is the case with the adult. The birds yawned a great deal (the same is true of adult noddies and sooties). This reaction is quite different from that used in opening the beak for food. While yawning they will not accept food. The note of the young noddy is very different from the hoarse, rattling sound of the adult. It is a soft, liquid, slow, plaintive "querk-querk-querk."

The huddling reaction[1] is present the first day. The birds all huddle together after being separated. They lower their heads and attempt to nestle under the bodies of their companions. At the end of the first twelve hours these birds are the superiors in the point of development of the sooties, but the sooties very rapidly outstrip the noddies.

All of these reactions which are present in the young bird on the first day are of vital importance to them, with the possible exception of yawning (even this reaction, apart from its possible value in respiration, may be of value in strengthening the musculature of the jaws, etc.). It is absolutely imperative for them to have the free use of the head and eyes and to be able to stand erect and to peck during the first day. The feeding parent on returning alights near the young bird, puts down its beak, and successively touches and taps the beak of the young bird, then its part of the reaction is at an end, provided by successive disgorgements it keeps its beak and throat filled with small minnows. The young bird must stand up and strike the beak of the parent until the parent opens its beak sufficiently wide to admit the beak of the young bird. When the fish in the mouth of the parent come into contact with the buccal cavity of the young, the swallowing reflex follows perfectly. The pecking of the young birds at the objects in their surroundings is not at first a pecking in the sense that the little chick pecks. It is rather a striking reflex. By means of it the young bird gains access to the mouth and throat of the parent.

The huddling reaction mentioned aboye is of value by reason of the fact that it gains for the young bird the protection of the parents' body from the cold of the northeast trade winds which set in at night. It is not a protective reaction in the sense of hiding from an enemy.

Second day:

The young noddies were kept day and night in a box which was covered by a cloth. They are extremely quiet all the time. At first they are small eaters, consuming rarely more than three minnows of small size at a feed-

[1] Not the true gregarious reaction in all probability. It was the normal mode of reaction to the parent.

ing. With birds in captivity the visual stimulus alone is not sufficient to produce all the movements necessary to feeding. They do not raise their heads and open their beaks wide as do the young sooties. The food has to be placed on a level with the head, then at gentle tapping, the beak begins to open. There grows up a very rapid tendency on the part of the bird to work a fish into such a position that it can be swallowed head first. I found that their aim in pecking was not very accurate. Even after they are stimulated to begin striking at the fish with open beak they will strike above or below it, nor do they open the beak commensurately with the size of the fish. Apparently both sensory and motor sides of this visual-motor reaction need strengthening. Whenever the bird is disturbed, or when it is being fed, it continually emits the above plaintive little note. It is instantly hushed if the hand is placed over it. It huddles under the hand, turning, however, so as to keep the head and beak out (a characteristic reaction when under the breast of the parent). Coördination in walking is apparently little further advanced.

Third day:

The birds eat more freely, but their appetites are in marked contrast to the sooties of the same age. The movements of the noddies in taking food from me are still not perfectly coördinated. They are better able, however, than a sooty correspondingly young to swallow a minnow taken crosswise into the mouth. The birds are still very quiet. In the early morning, while the young sooties kept in captivity are raising a noisy chorus, not a sound comes from the noddies.

The birds were tried again in the water. This time the leg movements were fairly perfect. The head and neck were kept well above water and they managed to swim until the down became soaked. When the bird began to sink and water was taken into the mouth, disgorgement took place. A good deal of increase in strength was noticed in the movements of the wings, neck, and legs. Birds were observed pecking both at the ground and at one another, but as yet no fighting was noticed.

Fourth day:

The birds are eager for their food. Feeding from me, however, is still not perfectly done. My finger is often pecked at in place of the fish. They peck more frequently at one another, and I noticed for the first time one pecking at the fish another was trying to swallow. When one bird is fed at the edge of the box, the others immediately begin to crowd up near my hand. Either there is a following instinct being exhibited here, or else an association has been formed.

The birds were taken to the sand and put down. They moved about very slowly. I separated them about 15 inches. In 10 minutes all had collected into one group and stood huddled together. Up to the present time there is no association established between a call on my part and a hastening toward me or an answering call on theirs. The sooties very soon learned to answer my call by running toward me and giving vent to a lusty "peep."

Their sleeping attitudes were observed for the first time. They lie with the ventral surface of the breast down; head stretched out and turned to one side, sometimes both legs stretched out, sometimes only one. They were noticed to-day preening their feathers by movements characteristic of the adult. This was a very complete act.

Eighth day:

The 5th, 6th, and 7th days are characterized by the appearance of the fighting reaction. This is full-fledged and well coördinated. From this time on I had to exert great care in keeping the young birds from injuring one another. Fighting is indulged in at any and all times unless the birds are covered. Apparently there is never any cause to evoke this reaction other than the mere visual stimulus of a bird nearby. On the 8th day the birds began to hop down from the box (a height of 3 inches) and to run to meet me.

Ninth day:

The birds have formed a great attachment for me. They will follow me all around the room. It is becoming more and more difficult to keep them in any box. They will clamber up to the top of the box if any means are at hand and will jump down from a height of 8 to 10 inches.

Eleventh day:

Birds are now forced to eat without any assistance from me. They learn this more rapidly than do the sooties, for the reason that the adult noddy in feeding its young sometimes disgorges the food upon the rim of the nest. The birds soon learn to pick up the fish from the floor, regardless of whether the fish are squirming or still.

Twelfth and thirteenth days:

These days show a notable strengthening in all of their instinctive responses. They peck frequently at small objects and have much more accurate aim. They rarely take the object into the mouth. The fights are now prolonged and furious. From further observation of the birds in the field I find that the pecking reaction is utilized by the young birds in *controlling* the movements of the parents. By means of it the young birds force the parents to cover them. When I cover the young birds with the hand they stop pecking. If I so arrange my fingers that they can not huddle underneath my hand, they continue striking it until the proper movement on my part is made to admit the bird under the cover of the hand. Once it receives the extended contact of the hand it gives a contented little "querk," which causes the others to hasten up and to huddle underneath the hand.

The nest habits of the birds of this age and older were noticed to-day for the first time. The nest is kept clean by means of their peculiar habits of defecation. The bird usually remains in the center of the nest. When defecation becomes necessary the bird backs quickly to the rim of the nest, stops suddenly, and forces the fecal matter far out over the rim (sometimes 8 to 10 inches). The interior of the nest is never soiled.[1]

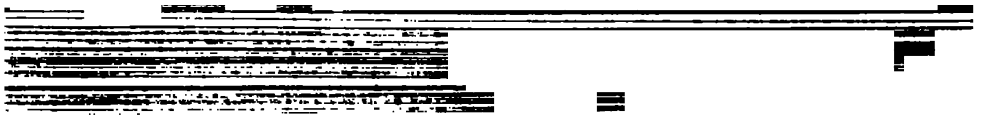
The birds in captivity, even when on a perfectly smooth floor, held to the same habits of defecation. The birds were turned loose on the floor at this age. They began pecking very definitely at all small objects in sight, for example, my tan shoe-lace, a spot on the toe of my shoe, grains of coral sand, bits of feathers, strings, small sticks, and matches. No attempt was made to swallow the small articles except in the case of the match. Three birds did attempt, however, to swallow this.

[1] I have seen an adult noddy when defecated upon by another bird fly immediately to the water and begin bathing.

Fig. 23.

Fig. 24.

Group activity of Sooties. Favorite sunning-place.



One interesting fact, which bears out the contention of Lloyd Morgan, became increasingly apparent. The birds at first show no discrimination with reference to the objects at which they peck. I cite one instance in detail: One bird defecated upon a white surface. A second bird ran up, struck at the fecal matter, and got a quantity of it in its mouth. Movements characteristic of "disgust" took place. The bird finally shook the material out. A little later the same bird came up to the fecal matter again, struck it this time lightly, and again shook its head and wiped its beak. About 30 minutes later this bird approached it a third time. Bird shook its beak violently before it came within half an inch of the object and turned away without further noticing the fecal matter. Two days later, in a similar situation, bird again was stimulated by fecal matter, but turned away before striking it. Many others of the birds were stimulated by this material, but while they were often at the point of striking at it, they always inhibited the movement so that the fecal matter was never taken into the mouth. They had in all probability already made the discrimination.

On the thirteenth day a rather interesting association was set up by one of my birds. In the bottom of the box (14 inches in height) in which I was now keeping the birds, an old pair of trousers had been thrown with one leg extending over the edge of the box. One bird climbed up the trouser-leg and jumped down to freedom. This bird began scrambling out of the box as fast as I could replace it. None of the other birds imitated this one or ever escaped from the box by this method.

Sixteenth day:

A rather interesting development of the pecking reaction was noticed to-day. Small twigs of cedar, matches, etc., were pecked at by the birds and retained in their beaks. They made no efforts to swallow the sticks, but would walk around the room with them with head extended, a complete replica of the adult noddy throughout its nesting season (see p. 200). The birds were tested on cooked "Cream of Wheat." They struck at it eagerly at first, but soon learned to reject it in a manner quite comparable to the learning of the rejection of fecal matter.

Nineteenth day:

There is a very noticeable increase in the ability to use their wings. They are beginning to flop the wings and to use them in obtaining equilibrium. They use them quite noticeably now when jumping down from a height. The characteristic movements of wing and leg of the adult when dozing on a limb in the sun were noticed for the first time. The wing turned to the sun is drooped so as to shield the body, while the opposite leg is stretched out, the body being supported by one leg.

Beginning on the 16th day[1] and during the rest of my stay on the island the birds were fed only in the maze. At this age it becomes possible to use food as a stimulus in controlling their reactions. The statement of the behavior of these birds in learning the maze will be given later on.

The young birds in the field are slightly more developed at 19 days of age than the birds held in captivity. I captured 3 of these birds at about this age,

[1] The nodding reaction (p. 196) was noticed first in a perfect form on the 27th day. Two birds were fighting; after a vicious thrust No. 1 backed away from No. 2 and nodded vigorously. Fighting adults often do the same.

but found them quite intractable. They were thrown into a state of absolute terror every time I approached them. I kept them in captivity for 72 hours, but they would neither eat nor drink. They fought me with all the vigor of an adult. Fearing their death from starvation, I returned them to their respective nests. The instinct of fear develops very early in these young birds in the field. Even at 3 days, if one approaches a nest containing a young noddy and attempts to pick it up, it will first disgorge and then strike vigorously with its beak. It is almost impossible to tame either the young noddy or the young sooty unless it is reared by hand from the first day. Lloyd Morgan, Spaulding, and others are unquestionably right when they affirm that young birds if taken early enough and reared by hand exhibit little signs of fear.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE YOUNG SOOTY IN CAPTIVITY.

The young sooty is born in a very helpless state.[1] On the 7th of June I took 8 young sooties, all born on that day. They differed slightly as regards their development. This is due to the fact that the birds dwell for varying lengths of time in the shell after it has become pipped. I have been passing through the bushes when the eggs were beginning to hatch and have heard quite lusty "peeping" and on looking about to discover the young bird have found that the noise came from birds still in the shell. Whether they are fed at this age or not I do not know. Sometimes they live as long as 2 days in the shell with only the beak protruding. At this stage in their development they make no response to the warning cry of the adults as they do later on. They go on "peeping" lustily after the adults have flown. The peculiar protective attitude of the young birds has been mentioned already; that is, the ability to lie outstretched and perfectly motionless. If left for a time in this attitude, they begin to "peep" as soon as the sun's rays become oppressive. This means of protection persists until locomotion makes possible a more effective method. When the protective attitude disappears and locomotion becomes possible, the bird runs to cover when disturbed. Hiding is never in any sense complete. Indeed, the reaction seems to be almost thygmotactic. The moment the young bird can put its head in the crotch of a limb or get its body in contact with some solid object, locomotion ceases.

First day:

The young birds which I captured showed apparent signs of fear. Moving the hand rapidly near them, as in offering a piece of fish, caused them to dodge quite noticeably. The instinctive cry is a lusty "peep-peep." They are well developed, but clumsy. The wings droop and the birds have difficulty in standing; coördinated sitting positions likewise are almost impossible. The birds are somewhat hard to feed during the first day, but

[1] For supplementary description of field behavior of young and parent see p. 215.

after this age this process is easier with them than is the case with the noddies of a corresponding age. In the case of the sooties, as was not the case with the noddies, the mere sight of the food will cause the bird to open its beak. Light contact will likewise cause beak to open. Once the food gets into the mouth the rhythmical movements of swallowing follow perfectly.

Some locomotion is possible. They take a few wobbly steps with wings down and legs wide apart. Fairly well coördinated swimming movements are present, but the heavy down with which their bodies are covered soon causes the birds to become water-logged and they consequently sink. As the salt water begins to enter the mouth the bird raises its beak higher and higher and shakes out the water vigorously, crying lustily the while.

One of these young birds had not emerged from its shell; only its beak and the base of the beak protruded (eyes being covered by a membrane). Almost any call from me would cause this bird to "peep." Small minnows were offered and swallowed. The contact of the minnows caused the beak to open. I removed the shell; the bird made adaptive movements as if completing the process itself. After removal the bird was very insecure in its movements.

Second day:

The difference in growth is remarkable. Locomotion must have improved 100 per cent in the 12 hours. Birds can waddle around rapidly and maintain upright position fairly well. They follow moving objects with the head and eyes quite easily. Will dodge very quickly if hand is suddenly extended toward them: Some tendency present to nestle under one another, under my hands, and under the folds of the cloth. Birds are beginning to peck at one another, the raw wings being the spot usually attacked.

Feeding is quite easy. Moving the finger, fish, or bits of straw rapidly across the beak will cause the beak to open wide. Whole minnows are swallowed with ease. The birds sleep a great deal of the time. The adult birds flying over the experimental cage and calling are invariably answered by a "peep" from the young birds. Even on the second day feeding is an active process with them. A fish dangled in front of them will cause them to strike at it. If the beak fastens upon the fish in the center of the body the young bird by a peculiar shake and twist of the head will suddenly right the fish and swallow it head first. It is safe to say that at the end of the second day the young sooty is sufficiently developed to take any fish from the beak of the parent which is likely to be found there.

Even at this early age the birds are found pecking at one another's mouths or at a piece of food which another is swallowing. Pecking at one another in a way forceful enough to suggest the beginning of the enormously important fighting instinct was, however, not noticed up to this time. Any signs of fear which might have been present the first day have entirely disappeared by the end of the second.

Third day:

The birds have begun to run toward me when I approach them and call. They will lustily answer my "peep" at any hour of the day or night.

The fighting instinct appeared to-day in almost completed form. Two of my young birds faced each other and began striking simultaneously. A hold is taken on the body and maintained with grim determination, the

time shaking his opponent as does the adult. Not the slightest as yet manifested itself. The birds as yet show no discrimination what objects they peck at. They are as likely to attempt to swallow my finger as the fish. Very minute objects, however, such as specks and hairs (as is the case with chicks, according to Lloyd Morgan) are not noticed by them.

Fourth day:

I was awakened at dawn by the lusty "peeps" of the birds (I slept in a ock about 10 feet away from them). When I "peeped" back the ed in a persistent chorus. Other sounds, which I made to test above note was a discriminated auditory stimulus, were not en I made them higher or lower, or if they differed widely in ld answer the "peep" of other were gr the rds are and those in the field. Three birds, 3 and 4 days of ag e field to compared with the birds reared in captivity. eedingly wild, and although I kept them in captivity for 2 or 3 they showed improvement in this respect, they never wholly lost their fear of me.

Their sleeping and lounging attitudes are very striking. In most cases, after a full meal is taken, the birds go to sleep. When lying down one leg (at times both legs) is stuck out so as to ive the ventral surface of the body contact with the ground. Head is c pletely outstretched and laid on one side; eyes are closed. At other times the bird rests its rump on the ground, using legs as a prop, and dozes in this attitude. As it dozes its head falls to the right or to the left or vertically downward between the legs. When the beak strikes the ground the eyes are partially opened, the head is raised again and the process is repeated.

Fifth day:

I began training the birds to-day, to get them to form the habit of coming to a certain place for food and eating without assistance from me. The test was very simple. A dry-goods box 8 inches in height had an inclined plane, 2 feet in length, leading from the top to the floor. The birds were to be fed on top of the box.

I first put a bird upon the inclined plane and dangled fish in front of it, attempting to toll it upward. At first the bird would stand in its tracks, extending neck and head to strike at the fish. After trying this upon all of the birds I would pick them up, place them on top of the box, and there feed them. At the end of the third feeding the birds had begun to clamber up the plane. Walking upwards at this angle gave them some difficulty. They looked intently always at the fish and paid little attention to their own movements; occasionally mishaps such as falling from the plane occurred. At the end of the third feeding it was still necessary to start each bird by placing it on the inclined plane. No attempt was made by the other birds to follow the bird which was being tolled to the top of the box. The birds still show no discrimination as regards their food. They will swallow almost anything. I tested them with several different kinds of fish, small crabs, strings, and sticks—whatever was presented was swallowed unless care was taken to prevent it.

Sixth day:

There is slight improvement in getting to the top of the box. The birds are still very clumsy, but are becoming more and more eager.

Seventh day:

Birds eager for breakfast. Two walked up the platform before the fish were shown. Two others came up as the first two were being fed. Live fish were given them to-day. The birds' movements are wonderfully fast. The extremely rapid movements of the fish are not faster than the action of their beaks.[1] There is little improvement in discrimination to be noticed. To-day, while I was feeding some of the birds, I felt a tug from behind, and on turning around, I found that one of them had swallowed about 3 inches of my handkerchief and was straining every muscle to force the rest of it down!

At the second feeding on this day one bird ran immediately up the plane and three others followed. When fish were presented these four birds began fighting vigorously. By the time they were fed, all of the other birds had clambered to the top.

The young birds were offered lemon peel to-day. It was snapped up by all the young birds eagerly. They continued to snap and swallow the lemon rind for three to four trials, and refused thereafter to open the beak for it.

Fighting is furious and prolonged. The young birds are exact replicas of the old in this respect. All that is necessary to start a fight is for one bird to come within striking distance of another.

Eighth day:

The association of walking up the plane to feed was perfect in all of the birds by the end of the last feeding on this day. They, however, had not yet learned sufficiently well to feed without assistance from me.

The young birds began to-day to dig holes in the sand, using exactly the same movements which are employed by the adults in digging the nest, except that the young birds do not shape the hole with the breast as the adults do the nest. By digging such a hole, the bird secures a surface which is damp and cool. The holes are usually dug near some solid object, whether because of greater coolness there, or through some thygmotactic tendency, I am not able to state.

A new instinctive reaction was observed to-day which is continued from this time on. A bird standing still will suddenly hop an inch or two in the air and come down in the same spot. As it descends it flaps its wings. The value of this reaction in strengthening the wing muscles is apparent.

[1] An old sooty with a broken wing, which had learned to come to the experimental cage when the young birds were being fed, was carefully watched to-day. Live fish were put down before it in a shallow dish. The bird would catch the fish near the middle of the body and by a quick flirt would bring the fish around head end first before swallowing it. This bird's movements were extremely quick. If I offered it a fish after it had been sufficiently fed, it would strike at the fish, take it in the beak, and then let it fall. Young birds were seen to do this early. The old bird would eat any variety of small fish but rejected sticks, grass, etc., after taking them into the beak. Lemon rind was offered. The bird took it into the beak but quickly rejected it. Would not take it a second time.

Ninth day:

I began feeding the birds in Porter's[1] simple maze. The description of their behavior in learning this maze will be given further on in the paper.

Detailed records of the development of these birds were kept until they were 30 days of age, but on account of the great similarity of these later records to the above, I shall not cite them in detail. Experiments on learning to discriminate were made from day to day, but all such tests gave results very similar to those which have already been described. After the birds had learned to pick up the fish from a dish, it was possible to put seaweed, grass, bits of coral, etc., in with the fish. At first these were taken eagerly, but after a few trials the birds would learn to take the fish and leave the débris. Discrimination, however, never became very accurate. When very hungry, the bird would attack objects other than the fish. I think this is but natural, since the young bird feeds entirely from the beak of its parent until it is able to fly and fish for itself. They certainly get nothing there which would tend to develop discrimination.

It may be of interest in this connection to say a few words about the way the young birds in the field and those in captivity spend the greater part of their time. I have already remarked upon the fact that there are no signs of play. This was as nearly true of the birds in the field as of those observed in captivity. The only reaction which it is at all possible to consider a playful one is the one already mentioned, namely, the frequent hopping up and flapping of the wings. There is a question in my mind here as to whether after all Gross's theory of play fits the facts in any other genus of animals so well as in the case of mammals. Certainly the facts which I could gather with reference to both the noddy and the sooty terns do not lend support to his theory. These birds certainly lead an instinctively complex life. Surely the picking up of a live fish darting over the surface of the water is as complex an act as the catching of a mouse.

The greater part of the time is spent in doing *absolutely nothing*. The birds will lie outstretched in their sand-holes, getting up at times to stand stockstill for an hour or more, or to doze with head bent down. At intervals they peck at their feet and occasionally preen their feathers. In the field the routine is broken by the call from the parents which have returned to feed the young. At other times the young bird gets hungry; at such times it begins to cry lustily and to go up to the parent (which is likewise standing or fighting in the neighborhood) and begs for food by "peeping" and by striking at the parent's beak. Getting nothing, the bird will wander off for 10 to 15 feet into the shade and lie down again. Frequently it engages in fights with other young birds. Occasionally it will attack an adult noddy which has dropped down to gather sticks. The young sooty never attacks an adult sooty.

[1] Op. cit., p. 253.

As the birds get older they begin to fly short distances. At the end of 35 days[1] they can cover 30 to 40 feet very rapidly by a series of flying hops.

THE BEHAVIOR OF YOUNG BIRDS IN CONTROLLED SITUATIONS.

After the young noddies and sooties had learned to eat without assistance from me they were allowed to learn Porter's simple maze. A cut of this maze is appended.

In place of admitting the birds to the maze at the entrance *O*, as Porter did, they were put down at *H*, and allowed to come out at *O* and walk up,

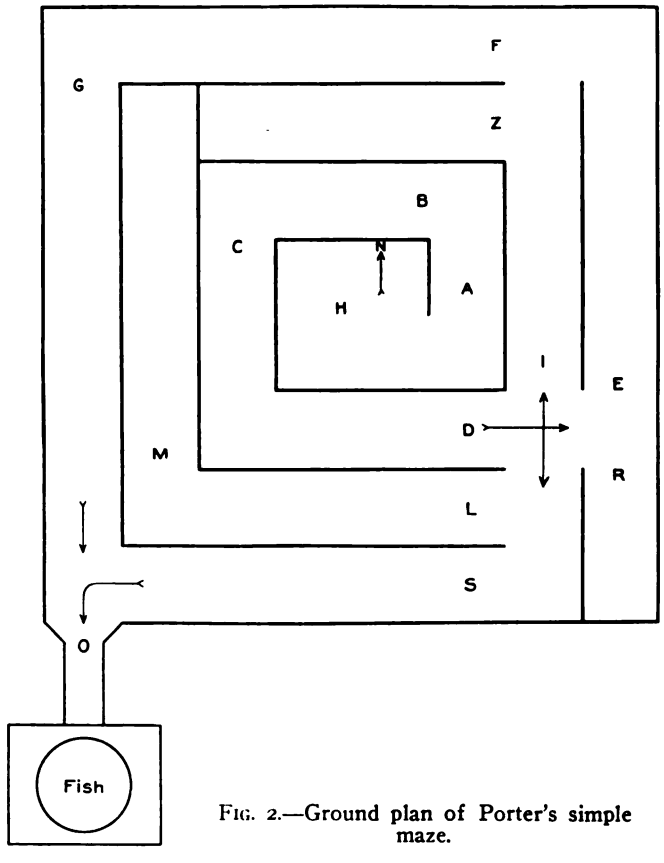


FIG. 2.—Ground plan of Porter's simple maze.

by means of an inclined plane, to the top of the box from which they had previously been taught to feed.

The dimensions of the maze were the same as those used by Porter. The

[1] This was the most mature young bird on the island. I had taken the precaution to mark the time of the appearance of the egg in several nests early in the season, in order to have the reactions of the birds in the field to compare with those obtained from birds in captivity.

maze as a whole was 4 feet square; the alleys were constructed of
bristol board and were made 5 inches high and 5 inches wide. Th
was covered with 0.375-inch wire mesh. The bottom of the maze w
wood. In order to determine more accurately the number of useless m
ments, fine white coral sand was sifted over the bottom of the maze
depth of 0.25 inch.[1] The movements of the birds could be traced
pletely by the tracks which they left in the sand. By means of a small w
broom these tracks were obliterated after each trial.

It will be seen that the maze offers both a long and a short way t
A few of the birds learned the maze at first by the long way; all adopte
shorter way before the experiment was over.

The maze was placed in a large room, which was well lighted by 2
dows, one to the west of the maze, the other to the north.

Since the birds were perfectly habituated to handling they were place
hand at *H* and their time in reaching *O*, together with the number of e
made, were recorded by me. Thinking that my presence might influenc
reactions of so keen-sighted a bird, I watched their reactions through a s
auger-hole bored through the south wall of the room.

Two trials per day were given, one at the morning feeding and o
hours later at the noon feeding. The birds were allowed fully to sa
their hunger after each successful trial in the maze. The night feeding
not made in connection with the maze, but in the large experimental
which remained out in the open. Four sooties, of which 3 were males,
3 male noddies learned this maze.

THE BEHAVIOR OF THE SOOTIES IN LEARNING A MAZE.

I began feeding the sooties in the maze by blocking off the runway *G* f
the rest of the maze and by closing the entrance to *S*. The cover of
maze was raised and the bird was then put down in this runway and allo
to come out at *O* and walk up the inclined platform to the food which
contained in a dish resting upon a box 8 inches high.[2] Two feedings w
sufficient to accustom them completely to this situation, but since the nod
were not sufficiently developed to begin work upon the maze, I fed the soo
in this way for 7 days.

The sooties began learning the maze properly when they were 15
of age. At this age they are as fully developed, so far as coördinatio
movement is concerned, as the noddy at 19 days.

Table 3 and the graph (fig. 3) constructed from it show the time-rec
and the general features of the learning process.

[1] This method is fully as accurate and far more cleanly than that of using sm
paper.

[2] See p. 244 for tests on learning to walk up an inclined plane to the top of a
The same plane and box used there were employed in this connection.

Fig. 25.

Fig. 26.

Fig. 25. Nesting colony of Orange-chinned Parakeets.

Fig. 26. Parakeets [illegible] on the shore of the Orinoco after bathing in the water. Note the spectacled [illegible]

TABLE 3.—*Individual and average time-records of four sooties in learning Porter's simple maze, in minutes and decimals of minutes.*

No of trial.	Bird I.	Bird II.	Bird III.	Bird IV.	Average	No. of trial.	Bird I.	Bird II.	Bird III.	Bird IV	Ave
1	15.00	16.00	16.00	25.00	18.00	18	0.66	0.75	0.83	0.16	0.60
2	20.00	4.00	14.00	5.00	10.75	19	.33	2.21	.38	.20	.70
3	20.00	6.00	13.00	2.00	10.25	20	.33	.61	.96	.30	.55
4	9.00	7.00	10.00	2.78	7.18	21	.21	1.33	.98	.50	.75
5	.83	1.50	14.00	1.33	4.41	22	.30	.88	2.12	.26	.89
6	.83	1.16	2.25	.75	1.24	23	.30	.50	.26	.25	.32
7	2.33	4.80	1.93	1.18	2.56	24	.23	2.16	.56	.36	.82
8	.98	.91	.45	.78	.78	25	.28	.55	.58	.25	.41
9	.98	1.28	1.55	.30	1.02	26	.13	.33	1.50	.26	.55
10	.78	1.25	.61	1.00	.91	27	.26	.58	.81	.20	.46
11	.96	1.05	1.00	1.50	1.12	28	.20	.30	.58	.30	.34
12	1.28	1.35	.46	.95	1.01	29	.58	.73	1.99	.20	.87
13	.36	.33	1.12	.33	.53	30	.26	.30	1.20	.31	.51
14	2.61	.61	.35	.83	1.10	31	.23	.23	.35	.25	.26
15	.68	1.12	.50	.41	.67	32	.21	1.09	.38	.13	.45
16	1.75	1.38	1.05	.33	1.12	33	.20	.30	.58	.23	.32
17	.75	3.00	.55	.23	1.13	34	.23	.25	.31	.16	.24

The error record is practically valueless because of the habits of the birds and of the unsatisfactory nature of the maze.[1]

The general features of the learning process are apparently not very different from those obtained by Porter on the pigeons, English sparrow and other birds. The time of the sooties, however, is markedly longer

[1] I have been criticized both by Yerkes (Jour. of Phil., Psychol., and Scientific Method, vol. IV, p. 585) and by Miss Washburn (Jr. Comp. Neurol. and Psychol., vol. XVII, p. 532) for not presenting the error record in the case of the normal and defective rats which learned the modified Hampton Court maze (John B. Watson: Kinæsthetic and Organic Sensations: Their Rôle in the Reactions of the White Rat to the Maze. Psy. Rev., Mon. Supp. No. 33). I wish to say in this connection that mazes constructed along the lines of these two do not permit of a satisfactory error record without an infinite amount of time being consumed in the process. With the above (Porter) maze a satisfactory error record would have to be made on a basis of the exact number of inches traversed in cul-de-sacs, the number of returns made, the number of false turns made, etc. There would have to be some way of indicating the value of a hesitancy at a blind alley, of a full turn into a blind alley, and the difference in error value between traversing, say, 5 inches in an alley and going its full length, etc. If one attempted to present an accurate record of the errors of a test, one would consume several pages in the description of each of the first few trials. If, on the other hand, one does not present such a descriptive record, and chooses arbitrarily to call any random movement an error, giving all errors equal value, however much the random movements may differ in kind and extent, as Porter (op. cit., p. 253) did in the case of the sparrows, pigeons, etc., and as Kinnaman (Am. Jr. Psy., vol. 13, I, 173–218) did in tests on the monkeys, the record becomes valueless as a basis of comparison with the work of others. Errors in this sense mean nothing except possibly to the man who records them. Our technique in the field of animal psychology is so crude at the present stage of the development of the science that the problems which we present to our animals are not of the kind which easily permit the recording of "errors." I shall welcome as eagerly as anyone a reconstruction of the field in such a way as to permit such records. (Since writing the above I have succeeded in devising a satisfactory method for testing animals in the maze which permits us to give both the time record of each trip and a record of the *total distance traversed* by the animal at each trip.)

than is the case with the birds observed by Porter. The reason for thi is quite clear when one recalls that the sooties will stand perfectly sti sometimes for an hour or more. Most of the time consumed by the bird was spent in idling at *H* or in standing in some other part of the maz I have compared my record of "errors" with that given by Porter, an find that if anything the number of errors made by the terns is less tha

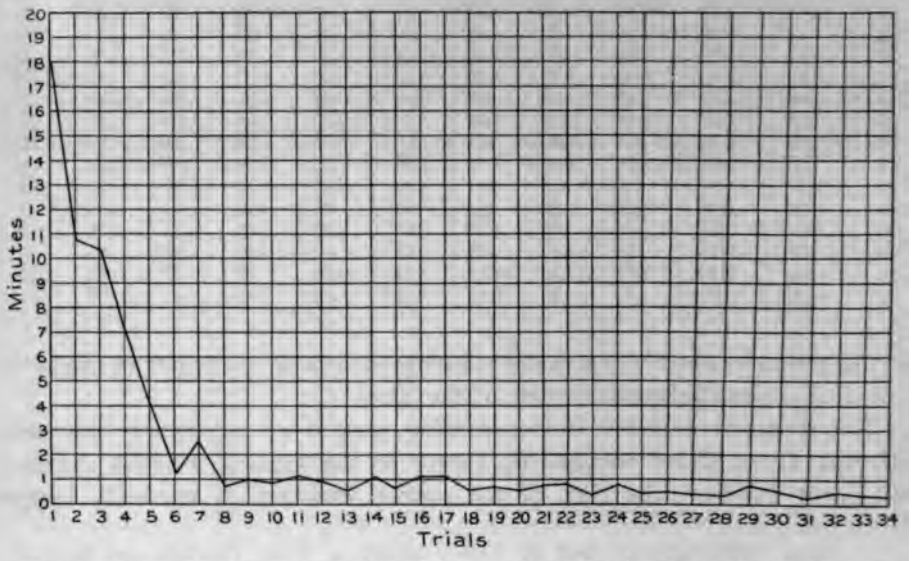


FIG. 3.—Curve showing average time of four sooties in leaving Porter's simple maze.

that made by many of Porter's birds. Porter records 3.5 errors for th vesper sparrow; 91 errors for the cowbird; 7.5 for English sparrow F 5 58 to 45 errors for English sparrow M 6; 121 errors for English sparrow F 7; and 11 errors for English sparrow M 8, as being the total numbe of errors made by his birds in their first two trials.[1] It would be abso lutely impossible for the young terns, with their idling habits, to make within the time-limit shown above, anything like the number of errors whic some of Porter's birds made in the time shown in their records.

If the time for idling, which is a characteristic mode of behavior and i not due to a lack of hunger, were taken out the curve as shown above woul be much smoother and would lie very much nearer to the base line. I the latter part of this curve be compared with the corresponding portio of a similar curve obtained from the rat in learning the Hampton Cou maze,[2] its extreme irregularity as compared with the rats' curve will at onc become noticeable. The terns never become the automata which the ra

[1] What do "errors" mean in such cases as these!
[2] Watson, J. B. Op. cit., p. 100, curve III.

become. The jerky, uneven reactions of the adult sooty are already showing themselves in the early behavior of the young sooty.

THE BEHAVIOR OF THE NODDIES IN LEARNING A MAZE.

The same routine of learning the maze was adopted in the case of the noddies as was described above for the sooties. The noddies, however, were 19 days of age before they were comparable as regards development with the sooties, 15 days of age.

Table 4 and the graph constructed from it (fig. 4) show the time-records and the characteristic features of the formation of this association.

TABLE 4.—*Individual and average time records of three noddies in learning Porter's simple maze in minutes and decimals of minutes.*

No. of trial.	Bird I.	Bird II.	Bird III.	Average.	No. of trial.	Bird I.	Bird II.	Bird III.	Average.
1	16.00	7.00	8.00	10.33	13	0.43	2.12	0.18	0.91
2	17.00	7.50	9.00	11.16	14	.41	.20	.28	.29
3	19.00	.83	22.00	13.94	15	.43	.33	.43	.39
4	7.00	3.00	6.00	5.33	16	.46	.33	.33	.37
5	7.00	5.00	3.00	5.00	17	.25	.45	.28	.32
6	7.50	.66	2.25	3.47	18	.81	.60	.30	.57
7	3.50	7.50	.95	3.98	19	.33	.33	.16	.27
8	7.00	2.00	1.00	3.33	20	.30	.33	.30	.31
9	8.50	4.00	1.50	4.66	21	.33	.45	.20	.32
10	3.00	5.00	1.00	3.00	22	.25	.58	.46	.43
11	.73	4.00	3.00	2.57	23	.38	.51	.33	.41
12	1.93	.83	2.16	1.04	24	.33	.55	.25	.37

The noddy is very much slower in learning the maze than the sooty: (1) because of less general activity, and (2) because of longer periods of standing. Mention has already been made of the habit of the adult noddies of standing motionless for hours upon the top of any object which projects from the surface of the water. When the young noddy is placed at the unfamiliar position at *H*, he shows the tendency to react in this way to a marked degree. Although I exerted every care to keep the food conditions constant, I found that the first few trials of the noddy were quite unsatisfactory. So persistently would they stand in their tracks at *H* that I finally had to arouse them by tapping on the wall. The first three trials recorded above are valueless for this reason. From the fourth trial on, however, the records were made in the usual way. The errors are not markedly different in point of numbers or in kind from those of the sooty. The above curve, with the limitation above noted, is quite characteristic. It will be observed that 13 trials were necessary to bring the curve down to the point representing one minute of time. This point was reached by the sooty at the eighth trial. This brings out the general fact which I have noted elsewhere,[1] that the young sooty is much more active than the young noddy.

[1] See p. 243.

In any given problem, the successful solution of which depends upon random activity, the animal which has the greatest activity is likely to show a shorter time record for the early trials.

In the second place, the curve for the noddy drops to a minimum at the fourteenth trial, which is maintained almost uniformly for the rest of the tests. The variation occurring throughout the curve for the sooty has already been remarked upon. A comparison of the two curves from the fourteenth

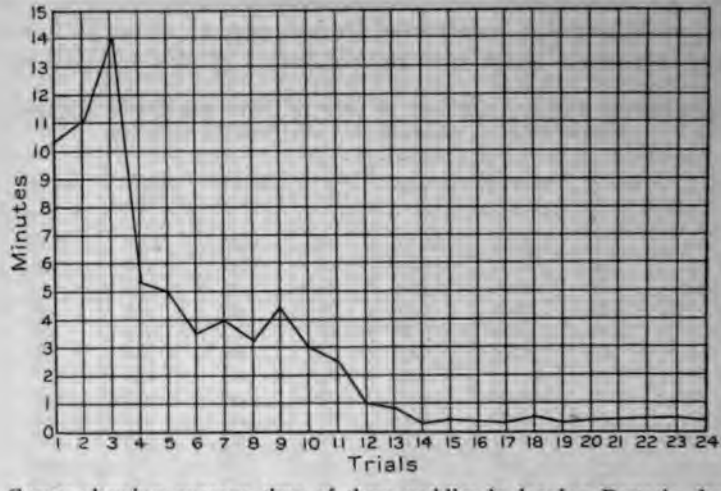


FIG. 4.—Curves showing average time of three noddies in leaving Porter's simple maze.

trial on brings out what I consider the second great difference between the two species: The sooty is highly excitable and nervous; the noddy is stolid and indifferent. The sooty, even though going through habitual reactions, is disturbed by slight changes in intra and extra-organic stimulations; the noddy on the other hand is indifferent to slight changes in stimulation.

While these conclusions are based, it is true, upon few records, I feel after much observation of the birds that the amassing of a larger number of statistics would establish even more firmly the conclusions given above.

EXPERIMENTS WITH THE MAZE IN FAINT ILLUMINATION AND IN TOTAL(?) DARKNESS.

The trained animals used in the above experiment were tested at night with the maze faintly illuminated. The situation was as follows: For two or three days I had accustomed the birds to a late night feeding. I then made the room in which the maze was kept completely dark by boarding up the windows. I next mounted a commercial candle of ordinary size (standard candles were not available) upon a glass plate. I then suspended the candle so mounted over the center of the maze at a height of 50 cm. I found it absolutely impossible under these conditions to avoid shadows

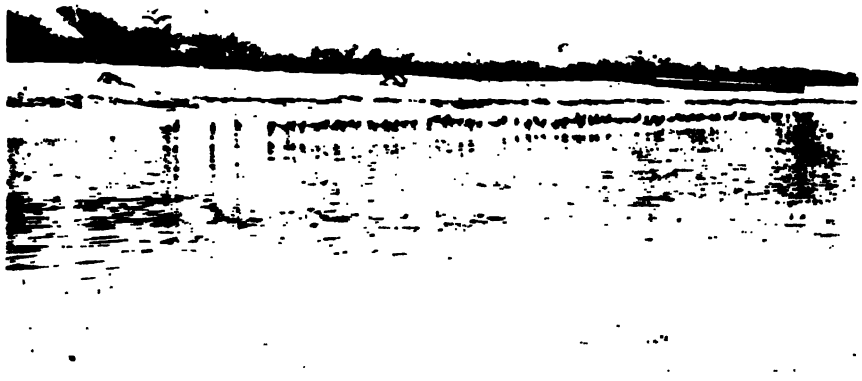


Fig. 27.

Fig. 28.

Group [illegible] Nereis. Sunning reaction.

being cast over many of the pathways; consequently the results are more or less vitiated by this circumstance. I determined, however, to test the birds under these conditions. The birds were kept in the room for 45 minutes before being tested in the maze. They were quite lively and hungry. All other conditions of the test were the same as in daylight. The behavior of the sooties is shown in the following:

Sooty I: Started the short way as usual, but the deep shadows seemed to deter him. Turned into E and came to O by the longer route. Time: 1.50 minutes.

Sooty II: Bird ran quickly completely around H. Came out and ran rapidly to L. Was deterred as in above case, ran into I and on into Z, came back to L and ran the full length of L and M and then went out the short way through S to O. Time: 2.66 minutes.

Sooty III: Ran out rapidly from H into I and then into Z, then turned and went into R and then into E and ran up and down the alley R and E three times. On the last trip passed on through F and G to O. Time: 2.80 minutes.

Sooty IV (female): This bird behaved very peculiarly. She spent 15 minutes in H. Came rapidly out to L, turned in there and ran the full length of M, came back and ran up I into Z, then back down I and poked head into R. Shadows there apparently disturbed her and she turned back into L. Dug a little hole there in the sand and after standing furtive and alert for 10 minutes, went to sleep. Total time under observation: 45 minutes. No success.

It is perfectly clear from the above test that the birds can run the maze in a faint light. Whether they can run it without error in the given illumination can not be decided until we can eliminate the shadows which were mentioned above.

On account of the unsatisfactory nature of this test the noddies were not tried in the same way.

The next night I tried the birds with the maze in total darkness. The birds were carried in as usual and left in the maze room for half an hour before being tested. An electric contact and signal had been arranged to warn me when the bird stepped upon the inclined plane at *O*. Great care was taken to remove all tracings from the sand so as to get a complete record of the trial movements of the birds.

The results of this test are curious. Each bird was left in the maze at its respective trial for 30 minutes. No signal reaching me, I then went in with my lantern. Not a single bird had moved from its tracks. Each had stood motionless at the point in *H* at which I had set him down. As soon as light was brought into the room the bird began "peeping" and moving.

It is clear from these tests that the light *conditions activity* in these

birds.[1] Under natural conditions in the field they are never in total darkness. Starlight on the island is exceedingly bright. We can not conclude from this test, however, without additional control tests (which I had no time to make), that the terns run the maze wholly by means of visual data or that they even learn it wholly in terms of visual data.

EXPERIMENTS UPON THE ROTATED MAZE.

One test was made upon the maze after it had been rotated 90 degrees to the north. The birds, for example, instead of traversing *S–O* in a southerly direction, must now traverse this alley in an easterly one. The relations of the turns, however, were not altered by this change; only the cardinal directions were altered. On account of my having to leave the island, much to my sorrow, on the following day, this experiment could not be extended to the other directions. The results of this test were as follows:

SOOTY IV.

First trial: Bird acted very peculiarly at H. Came out of H, but ran tion L. Became confused, went up I, then into F and on around the long way. Time: 0.91 minute. (Normal time for control test: 25 minutes.)

Second trial: Bird badly confused. Ran full length of L, then up I, then full length of Z, back down I, turned into R, then went long way via E, F, and G. Time: 2.43 minutes.

SOOTY III.

First trial: Perfect. Time: 0.20 minute.

Second trial: Stumbles about at H, making circus motions, apparently trying to find entrance. Becomes discouraged, goes into L and runs full length. Comes out and runs up I. Into F, then to O by long route. When he reaches the east corner of the maze, he stops and tries to poke head out through the meshes of the wire. This direction had formerly led to the food. Time: 2.75 minutes.

A third trial was given the following morning. Bird ran round to S, became confused, turned into E and came to O by long route. Time: 0.81 minute.

SOOTY II.

First trial: No error. Time: 0.31 minute.

Second trial: Bird badly confused. Ran full length of L. Came out, turned into S. Movements hesitating and slow. Time: 0.75 minute.

SOOTY I.

First trial: Perfect. Time: 0.20 minute.

Second trial: Bird badly confused. Every error in the maze was made again and again. Finally reached O by the long way. Time: 2.91 minutes.

[1] Both species were tested to see if they would feed (without aid from me) in a photographic dark-room. The test was very carefully made. Neither the noddies nor the sooties would stir from their tracks. All sounds were hushed. The sooties would no longer reply to my "peep" as they would customarily in starlight.

Third trial: Given this bird on the early morning of the following day. No full errors were made, but the bird showed a clearly marked tendency to turn in the old direction. Time: 0.25 minute.

NODDY I.

First trial: Perfect. Time: 0.16 minute.

Second trial: Is confused and hesitant. Tries at two points to turn in the old direction. Time: 0.43 minute.

NODDY II.

First trial: Hesitancies, but no error. Time: 0.41 minute.

Second trial: Confusion evident. Tendency to turn in the old direction very marked. Time: 0.56 minute.

NODDY III.

First trial: Badly confused at H. Tries in vain at first to find the exit from H. Runs full length of L, then out and up I into F and comes to O by long way. Time: 0.91 minute.

Second trial: Runs full length of L, starts to run into S, but withdraws head, turns and goes up I, turns into Z and goes full length, comes back down I, runs into R, turns and goes up E on wrong way to O. Time: 2.43 minutes.

From these experiments we are justified, I think, in concluding that there are some data used by these birds in this reaction which are not clarified by applying the term "visual" to them.[1] Porter's results on the English sparrows and other birds, obtained by testing trained birds in the reversed maze, are very similar to the ones reported here. My own experiments on normal, blind, and anosmic rats when tested in a similar way gave results which corroborate the above.[2]

An explanation of the disturbances in the reactions of the birds which ensue upon changes in the directions of the alleys of the maze can not be made until a more complete and better controlled method of experimentation is at hand.

[1] There are two possible sources of error in this experiment. In the first place, the "environment" was not rotated with the maze; in the second place, the rotating of the maze changes its position with respect to the two sources of light. Owing to the conditions under which I worked, I could not control these defects. Porter in his work on the reversed maze (op. cit., p. 256) makes no mention of either of these two possibilities of error.

[2] Op. cit., p. 86.

IX. AN EXPERIMENTAL FIELD-STUDY OF WARNING COLORATION IN CORAL-REEF FISHES.

BY JACOB REIGHARD,
Professor of Zoology in the University of Michigan.

5 plates.

CONTENTS.

Page.

I. Introduction—conspicuous and inconspicuous fish of the region and their habitats 261
II. The problem stated—as the interpretation of conspicuousness in coral-reef fishes 262
III. General method employed 264
IV. Reactions of the gray snapper toward unfamiliar qualities of color, odor, taste, or form in normal food 266
Abnormal color 266
Abnormal taste or odor 267
Abnormal form 268
V. Color discrimination in the gray snapper 269
Experimental methods employed 269
Color discrimination experiments, 1907, methods 270
Blue and white discrimination 271
Blue and red discrimination 273
Blue and green discrimination 275
Blue and yellow discrimination 276
Color discrimination experiments, 1905, methods 278
Blue and white discrimination 279
Blue and red discrimination 281
Discussion of color discrimination experiments 284
VI. Establishment in the gray snapper of a "warning-color" reaction, involving an association between color and unpalatability 284
VII. The retention of the red-unpalatability warning association in the gray snapper (memory) 295
VIII. Results of feeding conspicuously colored coral-reef fish to gray snappers .. 296
IX. Rapidity and nicety of adjustment of the gray snapper to its food 303
X. General discussion of conspicuousness in animals 307
The significance of conspicuous coloration in coral-reef fishes 307
History of the theory of warning coloration 312
Analysis of the theory of warning coloration 312
Criticism of the theory of warning coloration 314
Immunity coloration, a substitute for the theory of warning coloration .. 316
XI. Summary 320
XII. Bibliography 322
XIII. Explanation of plates 324

AN EXPERIMENTAL FIELD-STUDY OF WARNING COLORATION IN CORAL-REEF FISHES.[1]

By Jacob Reighard.

I. INTRODUCTION.

The islands of the Tortugas group rise gently from a submerged plateau many square miles in extent. To the southeast, at a distance of about 3 miles, is the outer reef, and beyond this deep water. Immediately about the islands the bottom is overlaid by the gray-white or yellow-white coral sand and, except where traversed by the few tortuous channels, it is covered with water from 8 to 15 or 20 feet in depth. From this bottom the inner reefs rise sheer. These vary in size from isolated coral heads of a square yard or two in area to small reefs of a few square rods or a fraction of an acre. The upper surfaces of these reefs are sometimes exposed at low tide, and at all tides one may readily wade over them. (See plates in Saville-Kent, 1893, of the Great Barrier Reef of Australia.) Although nearly level on top, the reefs are penetrated in every direction by chasms, fissures, and tortuous covered passages which intercommunicate so as to form veritable labyrinths. Structurally the whole is not unlike a mass of small boulders carelessly piled and roughly cemented together (plate 1; plate 2, fig. 3; plate 4, fig. 8). On its upper surface and for a short distance downward into the larger fissures each reef is clothed with living coral, massive or branched; beneath this is dead coral and coral rock.

The crevasses of the coral reefs harbor many species of teleostean fishes. The smaller species and the younger individuals of the larger species are never seen at a distance from this shelter. On the reef and in its immediate neighborhood they find their food; when disturbed they scurry to the reef and vanish into its protecting mazes. As the disturbance subsides they slowly emerge, in the inverse order of their timidity, and gradually resume their wonted activities.

The larger individuals of those species that reach a considerable size may wander from the reef to a distance of some rods, protected from piscivorous fish of their own size apparently by their bulk. Thus *Abudefduf*

[1] Contributions from the Zoological Laboratory of the University of Michigan, No. 116.

and *Hepatus* may reach the shore and mingle there temporarily with the colonies of predaceous gray snappers. They invariably return in a short time to the reefs.

The colors of the reefs themselves are subdued. The coral rock is gray, in places nearly white. The mantle of coral polyps seen in mass varies from cream to light-brown or delicate pea-green. It is almost a monochrome. Only the dark shadows in the fissures or an occasional purple sea-fan lends contrast to the picture.

The coral-reef fish are nearly all conspicuous (plates 1 to 5, except fig. 9) either because of bright colors, patterns of contrasting colors, bizarre form, erratic movements, or because of some combination of these qualities. They often combine with conspicuousness disagreeable qualities in the form of defensive spines. The characters of some of these fish are given in table 13, page 299, and are discussed in section VIII of this paper. The conspicuousness is that commonly found in insects said to be warningly colored and the combination of this with defensive spines suggests the combination of conspicuousness and disagreeable qualities of many warningly colored insects.

In contrast to the fishes of the reefs are those commonly seen over the bottom of coral sand near shore. These are inconspicuous. The gray snapper, *Lutianus griseus*, as it appears over the coral sand (plate 4, fig. 9), is an example. It is piscivorous and its close agreement in color with its environment appears to be a case of *general aggressive resemblance*. Its common prey during my stay at the islands was the so-called sardine or hard-head, *Atherina laticeps*. This also is inconspicuous. It is almost invisible when seen from below against the surface film, as it ordinarily appears to the gray snapper. The fish is a plankton feeder. It does not find its food on the reefs nor seek their shelter. Its color is an instance, apparently, of *general protective resemblance*. Photographs were obtained of this species in its natural environment. Although the photographs were excellent the fish were so inconspicuous that the loss of contrast in the pictures, inevitable in the process of reproduction, made it inadvisable to make plates from them, as they would have shown practically nothing.

II. THE PROBLEM STATED.

The conspicuousness of coral-reef fish appears to me to exclude any explanation based on protective or aggressive resemblance (*cf.* Wallace, 1891, p. 266). Semper (1879, p. 386) says, speaking apparently of coral reefs in general:

> The surface of a reef lying just under water has often been compared to a gay garden of flowers and the splendour of such a "bed" of animals is in fact quite astonishing. It is as though mother nature had here given free play to the fancy she is elsewhere compelled to restrain in some degree, by indulging her delight in lavishing all the colors of the rainbow and by inviting a motley company of creatures to disport themselves among the flowers and fruits of her submarine garden—blue and red star-fish, Holothuriæ, of every hue, and gaudily painted fishes.

The gaudily-painted fish occur on the inner reefs of the Tortugas, but the "brilliant colors of the rainbow," "the flowers and fruit" I am unable to see in their environment. The brilliant fish are therefore conspicuous against a dull and nearly uniform background. I know of nothing in the environment which they resemble even remotely.

Striking sexual differences have not been noted in these fishes by systematists, and I have observed none. I am unable to tell the sex by any external character. Sexual selection seems therefore to be excluded as a possible explanation, although it is to be expected that when we know the mating habits of the fish we shall find that they include displays of color.

The theory of warning color often applied to certain of these fishes, most recently by Bristol (1903), seems then to afford the most plausible explanation of their conspicuousness. This theory attempts to account for conspicuousness, more particularly in insects, by its association with some disagreeable quality. The vertebrate enemies of the conspicuously colored animal are believed to be warned of its disagreeableness by its color. They thus learn to avoid it. In this way, in each generation, the most conspicuous are preserved and through this selection conspicuous coloration is believed to have been perfected. The theory thus attaches to warning coloration a biological significance—a present function—while at the same time it affords an historical explanation of the coloration, by asserting that it has been perfected through past selection of the functionally best adapted.

The present paper embodies the results of a search for the biological function of the brilliant colors and striking color-patterns of conspicuous coral-reef fishes. If it appear that a warning function does not at present attach to this conspicuousness, then it becomes extremely improbable that it could have arisen in connection with such a function.

The theory of warning colors embodies certain fundamental assumptions which it seemed possible, in the particular case in hand, to test experimentally.

(*a*) As stated by Beddard (1892, p. 155), "The theory of warning color implies not a special recollection of any type of insect, but a general association of bright colors with poisonous or dangerous qualities." A like idea is expressed by Poulton (1887). After pointing out the few colors and limited number of patterns among warningly-colored insects, he says: "It is to be noted that advantage would accrue in the greater thoroughness of the education, no less than by shortening the process, for a few colors with a few simple patterns would be remembered more easily than a larger number with a separate pattern in nearly every species." Again, following Meldola (1882), he says: "All the conspicuous and dangerous or distasteful species in any country will be found to share between them a few strongly contrasted colors, arranged in few and simple patterns again and again repeated."

(*b*) The theory of warning color assumes that the enemies of warningly-colored species are capable of discriminating colors.

(*c*) The theory assumes that the enemies of warningly-colored species are able to form associations between the conspicuous colors and patterns of their prey and their disagreeable qualities.

(*d*) The theory assumes that the associations thus formed between conspicuousness and disagreeable qualities are indefinitely retained (associative memory).

It seemed possible to test these four assumptions by experiments on the predaceous fish that occur about the coral reefs or along the nearby shore. Do certain colors in themselves convey a warning so that prey showing these colors is avoided? Have the predaceous fish color vision? Do they form associations? Have they associative memory? Experimental evidence on these points is presented in sections IV, V, and VI of this paper.

Should the predaceous fish be found to have the qualities assumed by the theory, the warning color explanation of the conspicuousness of coral-reef fishes becomes more probable. But it would still need to be learned by feeding experiments whether any of the species of conspicuous fish are avoided, whether any show that combination of conspicuousness with qualities sufficiently disagreeable to render them relatively free from the attacks of predaceous fish under the conditions that normally prevail. Experiments involving the feeding of conspicuous coral-reef fish to predaceous forms are described in section VII.

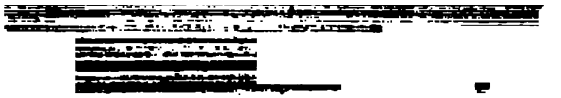
Through the courtesy of Dr. A. G. Mayer, Director of the Marine Biological Station of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, I have been able to spend parts of the months of June and July at the station during the seasons of 1905 and 1907, while acting as assistant of the U. S. Bureau of Fisheries. I am indebted to the U. S. Fish Commissioner, the Hon. George M. Bowers, for permission to publish the results of my work.

III. GENERAL METHOD EMPLOYED.

The gray snapper, *Lutianus griseus* (Linnæus), was chosen as the subject of the experiments. This, the commonest predaceous fish of the region, averages 12 to 15 inches in length. At the Tortugas it is found about the inner reefs, but occurs also along the shore of Loggerhead Key wherever there is shelter. Nearly all of the individuals along the shore were, during my stay, aggregated in three colonies. The largest of these colonies was under the Laboratory dock and consisted in the summer of 1907 of from 150 to 175 individuals, but was smaller in 1905. The two other colonies were found under the two docks belonging to the lighthouse, one on the east side of the island and the other on the west. Each was about a quarter of a mile distant from the Laboratory colony. The personnel of each of these colonies seemed to be fairly constant. During the day individuals rarely

Fig. 1. Rock ledges near beach, showing three *Abudefduf marginatus* banded with black and yellow-white, and two grunts (*Haemulon sp.*, probably *sciurus*) striped with blue and yellow.

Fig. 2. *Abudefduf marginatus* in crevasses of a reef of massive coral, *Orbicella*. Note mantle of living coral polyps.



wandered more than a short distance from the dock and always returned to it. I do not of course know that no changes took place in the colonies at night, but the results of the experiments as detailed below indicate that such changes must have been few.

The gray snapper feeds in the daytime and by sight. It usually approaches its prey slowly from below. When near enough (1 to 3 feet) it strikes quickly and, judging its distance with great accuracy, seizes the food, turns sharply, and returns to near its starting-point. The whole movement greatly resembles that of the end of a whip-lash when the whip is cracked; hence probably the name "snapper." The fish were entirely at liberty during the experiments and were taking their normal food and leading their normal life in an unmodified environment. The Laboratory colony was habituated to the frequent presence of people on the dock and paid little heed to them so long as they did not approach nearer than about 15 feet. This colony occasionally received food thrown from the dock and the fish were then accustomed to assemble, but the food received in this way was not enough to affect their normal appetite. They were always hungry. This feeding was, moreover, discontinued during the period covered by the more important experiments. That it did not affect the experiments appears from the fact that the fish at the other docks were not fed, and yet their behavior was identical.

The commonest food of the gray snapper in June and early July is the so-called sardine or hard-head (*Atherina laticeps*), a silvery-white fish about 2 inches long. It occurs in immense schools along the shore and is constantly pursued by gray snappers. To test the power of the gray snappers to discriminate colors, from associations, and retain them, atherinas were dyed various colors, as described below, and thrown from the dock to the snappers. The experiments were therefore mass experiments, in which an entire colony of gray snappers participated without being removed from their accustomed habitat.

The water is very clear at the Tortugas, and it is usually calm on one side or the other of the island, so that the observer on the dock sees the snappers clearly and is able to record the results of an experiment without difficulty.

IV. REACTION OF THE GRAY SNAPPER TOWARD ATHERINAS TO WHICH HAS BEEN GIVEN WARNING COLORS AND TOWARD THOSE OF ABNORMAL FORM, ODOR, OR TASTE.

ABNORMAL COLOR.

As the atherinas used in the feeding experiments had usually been colored by an aniline dye and were therefore dead, a test was first made of the reactions of the snappers toward dead and living atherinas. After a single normal uncolored atherina had been thrown to assemble the snappers, 18 other normal atherinas were thrown dead and living alternately. One was taken as quickly as the other. In no case was there any observable hesitation in making the first snap at either dead or living fish.

TABLE 1.—*Results of feeding gray snappers of the laboratory colony on "warningly-colored" atherinas in July, 1905.*

Exp. No.	No. of atherinas fed.	Color.	Method of staining.	Results.
1	6	Bright vermilion.	Diamond package dye fast scarlet, 5 minutes; weak acetic acid, 2 minutes.	Thrown in succession. All taken, No. 1 at once, while experimenter was 15 feet distant. Nos. 2 to 6 with hesitation while he was but 6 feet distant.
2	7	Deep vermilion.	As under 1, but stained 10 minutes.	Thrown alternately with normal fish from distance of 15 feet. All taken instantly.
3	7	Deep vermilion.	As in 2.....	As in 2.
4	7	Yellow.....	Stained 20 minutes in saturated solution of picric acid in sea-water and then rinsed.	Thrown alternately with normal fish, from a distance of 15 feet. All taken instantly.
5	8	Green	Stained in weak methylene-blue and then in picric acid.	Thrown consecutively, from distance of 15 feet. All taken as quickly as normal fish.
6	7	Dark blue ...	Stained in methylene-blue in sweet water, then rinsed in sea-water.	Thrown alternately with normal fish from a distance of 15 feet. All taken at once.
7	7	Dark blue ...	As under 6.	Thrown consecutively from a distance of 15 feet. All taken at once.
8	7	Sky blue.....	As under 6, but for a shorter time.	As under 6.
9	7	Sky blue.....	As under 8.....	Thrown consecutively from a distance of 15 feet. All taken at once.
10	17	Brilliant purple.	Diamond package dye violet, used as in experiment 1.	Thrown alternately with normal fish from a distance of 15 feet. All taken instantly.

Atherinas were then given various colors by staining them as shown in table 1. These were thrown to snappers with the results shown in the table. It appears from the table that the snappers take atherinas colored bright vermilion, deep vermilion, yellow, green, dark blue, light blue, and purple, and all without hesitation and as readily as they take normal or uncolored fish.

Not only were fish of all colors taken at once, but they were taken as readily when offered in succession as when offered alternately with normal fish. The snappers showed no hesitation in taking atherinas of any of the

colors used, except when the experimenter was too near them. Thus in the first experiment the first red fish thrown from a distance of 15 feet was taken at once, while the remaining 5 thrown when the experimenter was only 6 feet from the snappers were taken with some hesitation. In subsequent experiments the experimenter did not approach nearer than 15 feet and the colored atherinas were then taken readily. In only a few individual instances was any hesitation observed, and it was then found that this was coincident with the moving about of some person on the dock and that it concerned uncolored fish as well as colored. It is an interesting fact that this hesitation is greater if someone is fishing from the dock with a rod.

The colors used ranged through the spectrum, although none of them, so far as I know, is a pure spectral color. Since the snappers gave no evidence that any of these colors served to warn them, it becomes highly improbable that any color in itself has a warning meaning to them. Had any color had such meaning they should have refused it or taken it with great hesitation. This conclusion seems to me warranted, even though the food offered them is, except for its color, one which they take at this season with great frequency.

ABNORMAL TASTE OR ODOR.

In order to study in a preliminary way the behavior of the snappers toward substances of disagreeable odor or taste, atherinas stained red were treated with various substances and thrown to the snappers with the results

TABLE 2.—*Reactions of Laboratory colony of gray snappers toward atherinas treated with substances having unpleasant odor or taste, July, 1905.*

Exp. No.	No. of atherinas.	Substance used.	How prepared.	Results.
11	10	Formic acid 9 per cent.	Stained in fast scarlet containing 9 per cent formic acid; rinsed in sea-water.	Thrown after 3 red fish not treated with formic acid; some hesitation over first 2 of these. All formic reds taken at once.
12	8	Formaldehyde 40 per cent.	Red fish eviscerated and body cavities filled with absorbent cotton, which was then saturated with formaldehyde.	Thrown after 3 normal fish; all taken at once; none seen to be rejected.
13	10	Formaldehyde 40 per cent.	As in 12, but surface of body also wet with formaldehyde.	As in 12; all taken at once; 1 formalin red swallowed with some hesitation.
14	10	Red pepper..	Red fish wiped dry, smeared with vaseline, rolled in red pepper; very hot to tongue.	Thrown after 3 plain reds; taken at once; one swallowed slowly.
15	10	Quinine	Prepared as in 14, but with quinine; very bitter to tongue.	Thrown after 3 normal fish; all taken at once.
16	10	Red pepper and quinine.	As in 14, but with mixture of red pepper and quinine.	As in 15.
17	15	Red pepper, quinine and formic acid.	Prepared as in 11, then as in 16.	As in 15.
18	10	Ammonia fortior.	Red fish wet with ammonia fortior.	As in 15.
19	10	Carbon disulphide.	Red fish thrown directly from bath of carbon disulphide.	As in 15.

shown in table 2. To call together the snappers 3 atherinas were thrown at the beginning of each experiment. These were either normal or stained red, but were not rendered disagreeable. The first 2 of these (experiment 11) were taken with some hesitation, but all other atherinas offered in the nine experiments were taken as readily as normal fish. If any of them had been subsequently rejected their red color would have made them conspicuous objects on the sand bottom. None were seen to be rejected. In two cases the fish, after being taken, were swallowed slowly. They could be seen protruding from the mouth of the captor, which, pursued by other snappers, slowly swallowed them. The substances used are as disagreeable to man as any that I know, some by reason of their taste, others on account of their odor or because they act as irritants. Probably none of them occur normally in the environment of the snapper.

ABNORMAL FORM.

To test the behavior of the snappers toward food of abnormal form, normal atherinas were modified in form as shown in experiments 20 to 25.

Experiment 20: By removing the body between the anal and pectoral fins and sewing together the head and tail so as to produce a very much shortened form.

Experiment 21: By removing the heads of two individuals and sewing the bodies together end to end so as to produce a very much elongated fish with a tail at each end.

Experiment 22: By sewing together the bodies of three fish after removal of the heads and tails and thus forming a flat rectangular piece.

Each of the modified forms was thrown to the snappers separately after a number of normal atherinas had been thrown to assemble them. The first (experiment 20) was taken with a little hesitation, but the rest were taken as readily as the normal fish. Separate heads and separate tails of atherinas were taken with the same readiness.

Experiment 23: A piece of white twine 12 inches long and about 0.04 of an inch in diameter was tied by one end about the head of an atherina. It was thrown after one normal fish and taken at once.

Experiment 24: A brown cord about 15 inches long and a sixth of an inch in diameter was tied by one end about the head of an atherina. This was thrown after a single normal atherina. There was a moment's hesitation, three snaps which fell short, and then the fish and cord were taken.

Experiment 25: An atherina was wrapped in cheesecloth and this rubbed with another atherina. It was thrown after a single normal atherina and was at once taken and was not seen to be rejected.

From the preceding experiments it appears that modifications in the color, form, and chemical properties of the normal food do not prevent the gray snapper from taking it. The number of snappers involved in the experiments is so great that it is improbable that any individual had more

than a single experience with any one sort of modified atherina. The evidence, therefore, does not show that the snappers do not learn by experience; it shows merely that they try every new possible-food object that comes into the environment. This fact that the behavior of the snappers has yet to be adjusted to each particular kind of new food is itself of importance in connection with the theories of warning color and mimicry. The snappers have, for instance, formed no habit of rejecting food of a particular color. So far as concerns new possible-food they are still in the condition of the young chick which pecks at all sorts of small, near objects. That the behavior of the snapper may be rapidly adjusted to new qualities in its food appears in a later section of this paper. The necessity of such constant food adjustments is clear when we remember that the snapper increases many thousand-fold in bulk in its growth from the egg to the adult condition. Between the minute forms which must serve as the food of the very young fish and the larger forms upon which the piscivorous adults feed there is a wide gap, which must be bridged in the food of the growing individual. In the process of adjustment of the individual snapper a warning-color reaction may conceivably be established and may then be utilized by a mimicking form.

V. COLOR DISCRIMINATION IN THE GRAY SNAPPER.

EXPERIMENTAL METHODS EMPLOYED.

It has been shown (table 1) that gray snappers take without hesitation red, yellow, green, blue, and purple atherinas, one with as much readiness as another. There is thus suggested the possibility that these fish may be unable to discriminate colors,[1] an inability which would, if common to the predaceous fish of the reefs, be fatal to the theory of warning coloration. To test the color-vision of the gray snapper the laboratory colony was fed on dead atherinas that had been artificially colored. The natural silver-white color of the atherinas and the almost complete lack of pigment in the dermis makes it easy to dye them of a nearly uniform color. In addition to the normal white atherinas there were used red, yellow, blue, and green fish of light and dark shades.

The snappers were first fed on atherinas of one color until they had become familiar with that color and were then offered a choice between that color and another and unfamiliar color. Choice was offered by throwing 10 atherinas together from the dock to the assembled snappers, 5 of the familiar color and 5 of an unfamiliar color. The order in which they were taken was recorded, so as to learn whether the snappers showed power of color discrimination by taking first the fish of the familiar color and last those of the unfamiliar color. Each throw of 10 atherinas is called

[1] At the time these experiments were begun I knew of no experimental evidence that fish distinguish colors. Since then Washburn and Bentley (1906) have published an account of experiments on the minnow *Semotilus atromaculatus*, which appears to show color discrimination in a single individual of this species.

a trial; each experiment consists of a number of successive trials, often divided into several series.

In the preliminary trials the atherinas were taken so rapidly that it was impossible to keep an accurate record. It became further evident that normally hungry snappers might distinguish food of different colors, but might yet, on account of their hunger, fail to discriminate between one color and another. To reduce the rate of feeding to such a point that an accurate record could be kept and to make evident a possible power of color discrimination, it became necessary to prolong the preliminary feeding until the appetite of the snappers had been sufficiently dulled. The number of fresh atherinas taken by a colony of about 100 snappers was usually about 100 during the first minute. The preliminary feeding was continued until this rate had been reduced to 15 or 20 per minute. The discrimination experiments followed immediately thereafter. When, as in 1907, the atherinas used in the experiments had been preserved in formalin they were taken more slowly; the preliminary feeding was then not so long continued and the discrimination experiments began as soon as the rate of feeding of the snappers was slow enough to permit an accurate record to be made.

The atherinas used in each discrimination experiment were of the same average size. Those of the two colors were given a like taste by treatment with acetic acid or formalin as described below. Thus errors due to size or chemical properties are believed to have been eliminated.

In each trial the 10 fish were taken together in the hand and thrown by a single movement of the arm so that they fell upon the water spread over an area of 1 or 2 square yards and intermingled at random. They were seized by the snappers from beneath. The random intermingling of the two colors in each trial, unlike in successive trials, is believed to have eliminated errors of position in the horizontal plane. In the experiments of 1907 all atherinas used were made to float (except in experiment 26, *q. v.*), so that all lay on the water in one plane. Fish which sink are brought nearer to the snappers and are taken more readily than those which float. Thus if the atherinas of one color should sink more readily than those of the other color there would be introduced an error of vertical position. This is avoided by making all the atherinas float, so that all are equally accessible to the snappers.

COLOR DISCRIMINATION EXPERIMENTS (1907).

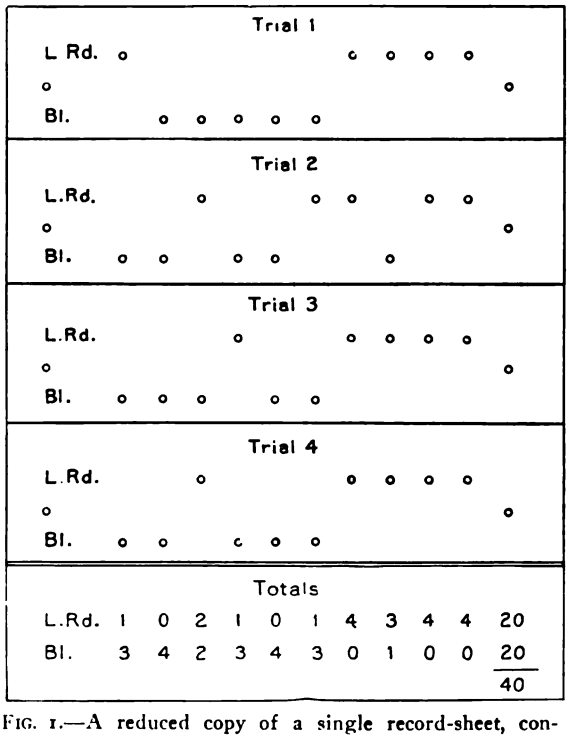
While *Atherina* was abundant at the Tortugas in June of each year of my stay, it became scarce in July. On my arrival on July 8, 1907, the fish were already so scarce that it was impossible to obtain on any one day the large number needed to conduct discrimination experiments with fresh fish. I had, therefore, to accumulate a supply of atherinas by preserving in formalin those obtained each day. The discrimination experiments (except experi-

ment 26) were conducted with these preserved fish. After the formalin had been as far as possible removed from them by soaking them in fresh water they were dyed and used precisely as though they had been fresh. The snappers took the formalin fish at first greedily, but after a little experience their rate of taking them became gradually much slower than with fresh fish. This rendered it possible to make a more accurate record of observations, while at the same time it greatly reduced the number of atherinas necessary for the preliminary feeding.

In all the experiments of 1907 the record was made by means of the following device: Two blocks of wood, each 8 inches long, 2 inches wide, and 1 inch thick are held with their broader faces together by a metal pin at each end. This pin is firmly fixed in the lower block, but is received into a hole bored in the upper block, so that the blocks may be readily separated. Through the upper block are bored two parallel rows of holes, 10 in each row, and these holes are continued for about 0.125 inch into the lower block. Into each hole is loosely fitted a flat-headed copper nail an inch and a half long, which is filed round and brought to a blunt, conical point. The observer places one end of a sheet of commercial note paper between the blocks, so that the points of the nails rest on its upper surface. If he is observing the order in which red and blue fish are being taken in a trial of 10 fish, the upper row of nails (nearer the end of the paper) may represent the red, and the lower row the blue. The device is operated by touch, so that the experimenter may watch the experiment while making the record. Beginning at the left, he perforates the paper by pushing down a nail in the upper row when a red fish is taken, a nail in the lower row when a blue fish is taken. After pushing down any nail he shifts his hand one nail to the right. When a record of one trial has been made, those of several succeeding trials are made on the same sheet by separating the blocks and shifting the paper. If the records of successive trials are kept in alignment vertically the vertical columns may be footed for each order and each color. A reduced transcript of such a sheet is given in figure 1, which shows a series of 4 trials with light red and blue. The record of each trial is to be read from left to right. In the first trial the first fish to be taken was red, the next 5 were blue, and the last 4 red. The totals at the bottom of the sheet show in how many of the 4 trials red and blue fish were first taken, second taken, etc. The numbers are the footings of the vertical columns for each color. Thus in 3 of the 4 trials blue fish were taken in the first order or place and in the other red was taken in first order or place. On the other hand, red was taken in the last place in all 4 trials.

Experiment 26: Blue and white color discrimination.—The fresh atherinas were divided into two equal lots. One of these was placed for 20 minutes in a saturated solution of methylene-blue in 0.4 per cent glacial acetic acid; the other lot was placed for an equal time in 0.4 per cent solution

of acetic acid without the methylene-blue. Fresh solutions were used for each experiment. The fish when taken from the solution were quickly rinsed in sea-water, and all had then the same sour taste. Before beginning the experiment the snappers were given a preliminary feeding of normal atherinas until their rate of taking them had been reduced to between 10 and 20 per minute. The discrimination experiment was begun immediately thereafter.



5 light-red atherinas and 5 blue atherinas were thrown in each trial, so that the four trials included 40 fish, 20 of each color. The circles at extreme right and left of the sheet are perforations made by the pins which hold the blocks together and are not included in the footings.

FIG. 1.—A reduced copy of a single record-sheet, containing first four trials of experiment 27.

The blue and white (or normal) atherinas were divided into lots of 10 (5 blue and 5 white), and these lots were thrown to the snappers in succession, a new lot as soon as all the fish of the preceding lot had been taken. The order in which the blue and white fish were taken was recorded by means of the device described above and in the form shown in fig. 1. Twenty-two trials were made. The records of the first 14 were discarded because it was observed that the white fish sank more readily than the blue, so that a position error was included. In the remaining 8 trials all the atherinas were made heavier than sea-water by laying open the air-bladder and emptying it by compression. All sank when thrown. These 8 trials appear in table 3, which shows the total number of blue and white atherinas

Fig. 3.

Fig. 4.

Fig. 3. French gruuts, *Hæmulon flavolineatum*, blue and yellow striped, among coral rocks at base of reef. At right a snapper (*Lutianus apodus?*) banded with black and yellow.

Fig. 4. An undetermined labroid feeding on rock bottom; at its left a branching gorgonian, *Plexaura*.

taken in each order by a colony of 100 gray snappers, at the west lighthouse dock, July 21, 8^h to 8^h 30^m a. m., when thrown in lots of 10, 5 white and 5 blue; the last 8 of 22 trials; 80 atherinas thrown; all taken.

TABLE 3.

Color.	Order or place.												Grand total.
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	Total first 5 orders.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.	X.	Total second 5 orders.	
Blue.....	0	0	1	0	5	6	2	8	8	8	8	34	40
White.....	8	8	7	8	3	34	6	0	0	0	0	6	40
													80

The Roman numerals indicate the orders or places for the fish of each color. The Arabic numerals show the number of times that fish of each color were taken in each order; they are the footings for each color of the vertical columns of the original record for the 8 trials included in the table.

From table 3 it appears that in all of the 8 trials the first and second and fourth fish to be taken were white. In 7 trials the third fish taken was also white; in 1 trial blue was third. In every trial of the 8 the seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth fish taken were blue. In the first 5 orders white fish were taken 34 times out of a possible 40, that is, 85 per cent of the fish taken in the first 5 orders were white, while but 6, or 15 per cent, were blue. In the second 5 orders these numbers were reversed; 85 per cent of the fish taken are here blue and 15 per cent white. Of the blue fish 32, or 80 per cent, remained untaken until the last white fish was taken.

The atherinas used in the experiment were of practically uniform size; they had like taste (sour); those of the two colors sank and were intermingled at random in each trial. The only constant difference between them was one of color. In taking 85 per cent of white fish in the first 5 orders, while blue fish are still present, and in leaving 80 per cent of the blue fish until all the white had been taken, the snappers show clearly that they discriminate between the blue and white fish. It does not follow that they discriminate between the colors blue and white. The blue fish are darker than the white; brightness may therefore be the basis of discrimination rather than color tone. This point can not be determined in experiments involving blue and white only. It is discussed in another place in this paper and reasons are given for regarding the blue-white discrimination as one of color.

Experiment 27: Blue and red color discrimination.—In this and the following experiments of 1907 the atherinas used had been preserved in formalin and subsequently soaked in fresh water to remove the formalin. It is believed that enough formalin remained to give to all the atherinas like qualities in respect to taste or odor.

The atherinas used were all females of nearly the same size and were made to float by the following procedure: The viscera were removed through

a longitudinal incision made with scissors through the body wall on one side from in front of the shoulder girdle to behind the vent. The body wall, stiffened by formalin, sprang back into place and the air inclosed by it made the fish float. The incision was made in a plane extending latero-ventrally, so that its edges were as oblique as possible. The ventral edge was thus overlapped and held in place by the dorsal and acted as a valve to retain the air.

Table 4 gives the result of an experiment in which both dark and light red were offered with blue to a colony of about 100 snappers at the east lighthouse dock. The snappers were first fed slowly for about 15 minutes on blue atherinas, both to dull their appetite and to familiarize them with the blue color. About 80 blue atherinas were thus fed before the blue-light-red trials, which began at 10 a. m. The 5 trials of blue and light-red atherinas followed at once on the preliminary feeding. An interval averaging about 5 minutes was allowed to elapse between the trials and during each interval 15 or 20 blue atherinas were fed. In the blue-light-red part of the experiment the 100 snappers thus had offered them 80 blue fish in the preliminary feeding, $9 \times 15 = 135$ blues in the interval-feeding, and 25 blues included in the 5 trials, or a total of 240; while but 25 reds were offered. All the 265 fish offered were taken.

The six blue-dark-red trials were begun at $4^h\ 12^m$ p. m. of the same day, after a preliminary feeding of 30 blue fish. The last trial included but 4 fish of each color, so that the total number of blue fish offered in this blue-dark-red part of the experiment was 194 as against 29 reds.

The method of staining the atherinas was that employed in experiment 26. The reds were stained as in experiment 1. The light red was obtained by a shorter stay in the stain. In order to determine the relative brightness of the colors used the colored fish were matched with cardboard disks stained with the same dyes and these were compared on a color wheel with grays in the usual manner and with the following result: The blue was equivalent in brightness to a gray containing 65 per cent black; the light red to a gray containing 50 per cent black; the dark red to a gray containing 75 per cent black.

The experiment with the snappers was conducted in bright sunlight. A considerable portion of this light does not penetrate into the water, but is reflected from its surface. The snappers, moreover, view the colored fish from beneath. They see the side which is illuminated by light reflected upward from the white sand bottom. The intensity of this illumination was estimated by examining the floating colored atherinas from below by means of the reflecting water-glass described in the footnote on page 298. The brightness of the colors used was then measured in a light which was judged to be of the same intensity as that which illuminated the colored atherinas in the actual experiment.

Table 4 shows the total number of blue and red atherinas taken in each

order by a colony of 100 gray snappers at the east lighthouse dock, July 24, 1907. The experiment includes a blue-light-red series of 5 trials and blue-dark-red series of 6 trials—each trial of 10 fish—5 blue, 5 red. The last blue-dark-red trial of 8 fish only. Blue-light-red trials began at 10 a. m.; blue-dark-red at 4^h 12^m p. m.

TABLE 4.

Color.	Order or place.											Grand totals.
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	Total first 5 orders.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.	X.	Total second 5 orders.	
Blue.....	4	5	3	4	5	21	3	0	1	0	0	4	25 } 50
Light-red...	*1	0	2	1	0	4	2	5	4	5	5	21	25 }
Blue.....	6	6	6	5	3	26	3	0	0	0	0	3	29 } 58
Dark-red†..	0	0	0	1	3	4	3	6	6	5	5	25	29 }
													108

* This fish sank.
† All 5 reds of the first trial and 3 of the second were untaken; they are included in the table as though taken after the blues.

In this experiment errors due to possible differences in the chemical properties of the fish of the two colors seem to be eliminated by the preservation in formalin and by the use of acetic acid in staining; errors of size are eliminated by use of mature female atherinas of practically uniform size; errors of position are eliminated by the random mingling of the blue and red atherinas all floating at the surface. The snappers have clearly chosen the more familiar blue in preference to both a lighter and a darker red. Thus 21, or 84 per cent, of the blue fish are taken in the first 5 orders when offered with light red, and but 4, or 16 per cent, in the second 5 orders; 26, or about 90 per cent, of the blue fish are taken in the first 5 orders when offered with dark red, while but 3, or 10 per cent, are taken in the second 5 orders. I can interpret the result only as showing blue-red color-vision.

To an observer the behavior of the snappers is quite as convincing as the tabulated data. Repeatedly when a blue and a red fish floated near one another, but at some distance from other atherinas, a snapper after swimming about beneath them for considerable time, as though examining both, took the blue. If in any such case during this experiment the red fish was the first of the two to be taken the fact escaped me. Repeatedly, too, snappers approached red fish and then jerked back and did not take them, but a similar behavior toward the blue was not observed.

Experiment 28: Blue and green color discrimination.—By July 25, 1907, all 3 colonies of snappers had become so experienced in atherinas preserved in formalin that they took them slowly, and after taking a limited number in any one experiment, refused them altogether. The remaining experiments were thus necessarily each restricted to but few trials.

On the afternoon of July 25 blue, prepared as in experiment 26, was offered with both light and dark green, all made to float. The greens were

obtained by the use of Diamond package dye, fast dark green, used in accordance with the directions on the package. The brightness of the 3 colors was found on the color-wheel to be as follows: the blue equivalent to a gray containing 79.5 per cent black; the light green to a gray containing 51 per cent black; the dark green to a gray containing 79 per cent black.

After the snappers had been fed on blue atherinas for about 10 minutes 2 trials were made with the blue and light green, followed by one with the blue and dark green. The results are given in table 5, which shows the total number of blue and green atherinas taken in each order by a colony of 100 gray snappers at the east lighthouse dock, July 24, 1907. The experiment included a blue-light-green series of two trials, and a single blue-dark-green trial, each trial of 10 fish—5 blue, 5 green.

TABLE 5.

Color.	Order or place.											Grand total.
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	Total first 5 orders.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.	X.	Total second 5 orders.	
Blue	1	1	0	0	2	5	1	0	1	2	1	5	10 } 20
Light green	0	1	2	2	0	5	1	2	1	0	1	5	10 }
Blue	1	0	0	1	1	3	1	0	1	0	0	2	5 } 10
Dark green	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	1	3	5 }
													30

Table 5 gives no evidence of a discrimination between the blue and green colors used. These colors were, however, impure, the green including some blue and the blue including some green. To my own eye they were widely different, but other members of the Tortugas staff found difficulty in distinguishing between the blue and dark-green fish as they floated over the snappers. It is quite possible that the snappers would discriminate between a spectral blue and a spectral green if it were possible to experiment with these colors by this method. The blue-green trials are, however, of interest as showing lack of discrimination on the basis of brightness, for here the blue and dark green are of the same brightness, while the light-green is much brighter, and yet there is no evidence of discrimination.

Immediately after the trial of blue and dark green recorded in table 5 a single trial was made of red and blue floating atherinas. These 10 fish were taken in the following order: R, B, B, B, B, B; 4 red fish remained untaken. The record, as well as the difference in the behavior of the snappers toward the two colors, shows clearly that they discriminate between them.

Experiment 29: Blue and yellow color discrimination.—On July 26 snappers in all three colonies took blue formalin atherinas so slowly at 7 a. m. that discrimination experiments could not be undertaken. At 11 a. m. the snappers at the Laboratory dock were found to take both floating and sinking blue fish with some interest. After feeding them on blue for about

4 minutes, 3 trials were made in which a choice was offered of blue and yellow. The blue atherinas were prepared as in experiment 26 and were of a shade equivalent to a gray containing 65 per cent black. The yellow fish were stained in Diamond package dye, fast yellow, according to directions on the package. It was equivalent in brightness to a gray containing 53 per cent of black. The fish of both colors had been treated with acetic acid in the staining and were therefore of like taste. They were of the same size and all, except one yellow, floated. The result of the experiments is shown in table 6. I was unable with the materials at command to obtain a yellow darker than the blue. The snappers in all three colonies had, moreover, now become so familiar with the unpalatability of colored formalin fish that further experiments with them could not be made. When it is remembered that in the red-blue experiments the snappers discriminated between the atherinas on account of their color tone, not on account of their brightness, and that in the green-blue experiments they fail to discriminate on account of brightness, it seems to me that in spite of the small number of atherinas included, table 6 shows clearly a power of discrimination between the blue and yellow used. The experiment includes 3 trials of 10 fish each—5 blue, 5 yellow.

TABLE 6.—*Total number of blue and yellow atherinas taken in each order by a colony of 150 gray snappers at the Laboratory dock, July 26, 1907.*

Color.	Order or place.											Grand totals.
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	Total first 5 orders.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX	X.	Total second 5 orders.	
Blue.....	3	3	2	2	1	11	1	1	1	0	0	3	*14
Yellow.....	0	0	1	1	2	4	2	1	1	2	2	8	*12
													*26

* 1 blue and 3 yellow remained untaken in the last throw and are not included in the table, which therefore includes 26 fish instead of 30. 1 yellow remained untaken in the first throw and 4 in the second; these are included in the table as though taken after the blues of their respective trials.

Here again the behavior of the snappers was even more conclusive, as the following extract from my notes, referring to experiment 29, shows:

After feeding on blue for some time (3 or 4 minutes) they were offered blue and yellow in lots 10 (5 each). A distinct preference developed for the blue. The snappers showed little interest in the yellow, leaving fish of that color largely unnoticed, but swimming about under the blue until finally taken. One yellow sank and was examined perhaps 50 times by various snappers, but remained untaken on the bottom. The yellows were left for the most part apparently unnoticed, but when one was approached the fish jerked back from it. All besides myself who watched the experiment agree that the behavior of the fish shows more clearly than the actual record that they discriminate yellow and blue. This colony had had no previous experience with yellow atherinas.

COLOR DISCRIMINATION EXPERIMENTS (1905).

I am unable to interpret the experiments of 1907, except as showing color-vision in the gray snapper. The experiments of 1905 are here added because, while following a somewhat different method, their results are in accord with those of the later experiments. These experiments differ from those of 1907 as follows:

(*a*) The atherinas used were fresh, as in experiment 26 of 1907.

(*b*) The preliminary feeding was therefore larger and usually included 300 or 400 atherinas.

(*c*) The series of trials was much longer, because the fresh fish were taken more readily.

(*d*) Some of the atherinas sank, while the others floated. If those of one color had sunk more frequently than those of the other color there would have been introduced an error of position. This was not known to happen except in the first 14 trials of experiment 26 above, which were therefore discarded. It is unlikely that in a long series of trials fish of one color sank more frequently than those of the other.

(*e*) The order in which the atherinas were taken was called out by the observer and recorded by an assistant. The observer called, for instance, white, white, white, blue, white, blue, blue, white, blue, blue (see under trial I, table 7). The recorder gave serial numbers to the colors as called and entered them opposite the name of the color in a previously prepared blank. A portion of such a record representing 5 successive trials of a single experiment is reproduced in table 7, which is part of an original record showing the order in which blue and white atherinas were taken in 5 successive trials in each of which 5 white and 5 blue fish were thrown.

TABLE 7.

	Trial I.	Trial II.	Trial III.	Trial IV.	Trial V.
Blue.....	4 6 7 9 10	3 6 8 9 10	1 7 8 9 10	2 3 6 9 10	2 3 5 7 10
White.....	1 2 3 5 8	1 2 4 5 7	2 3 4 5 6	1 4 5 7 8	1 4 6 8 9

The results of each experiment were then tabulated to show in how many trials fish of each color were taken first, second, third, etc. Table 8 shows the result of two series of trials made on the morning of July 20, 1905. The table shows the same discrimination between blue and white that appeared in table 3, but less marked. I have no doubt that this difference in results when using fresh and preserved atherinas gages accurately the discrimination of the snappers in the two cases. The greater palatability of the fresh atherinas results in those of the two colors being taken more indiscriminately, even though the color differences are perceived. With the less palatable formalin atherinas the snappers not only distinguish the colors, but discriminate more sharply between familiar and unfamiliar. There is this further difference between the experiments of 1905 with fresh atherinas and those of later date with formalin atherinas. Some of the fresh fish float; others sink, and are thus brought nearer the snappers and taken

first. There is no reason to believe that those of one color sink more frequently than those of the other, so that the sinking introduces no constant error. It does increase the difficulty of making an accurate record, but here again errors doubtless occur as frequently with one color as with the other. The greater discrimination apparent in tables from experiments with formalin fish I believe, then, to be an expression of the reality, rather than of a difference in accuracy of method. Table 8 shows the total number of blue and white atherinas taken by 100 gray snappers in each order, when thrown in lots of 10—5 blue and 5 white—during 26 successive trials; 260 fish thrown; 5 remained untaken; July 20, 1905.

TABLE 8.

Color.	Order or place.												Grand totals.
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	Total first 5 orders.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.	X.	Total second 5 orders.	
Blue.....	7	7	15	16	11	56	9	11	19	12	20	71	127
White.....	19	19	11	10	15	74	17	15	6	11	5	54	128
													255

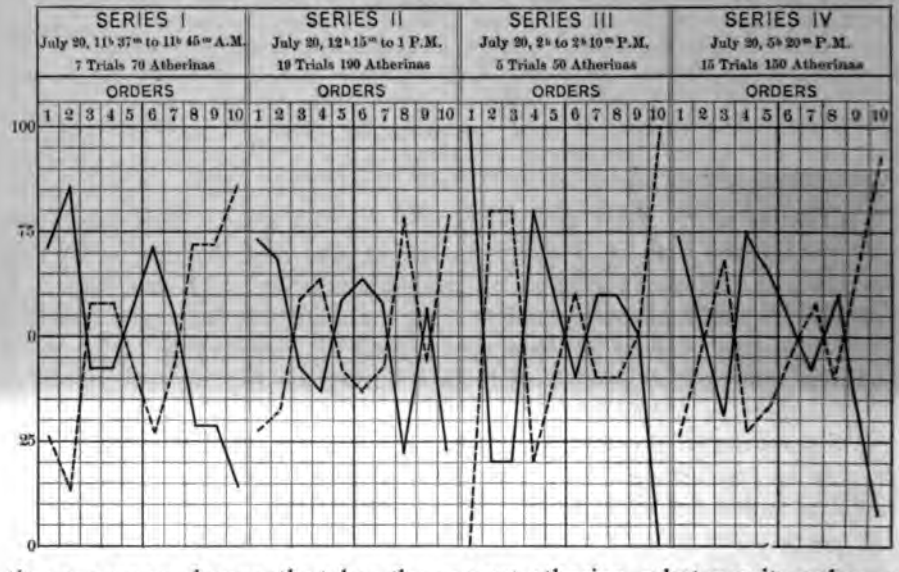
Experiment 30: Blue and white color discrimination.—This experiment was performed four times (July 19, 20, 21, 22), but the results were invariable, so that only the series of July 20 and 21 need be considered. In each series the trials were preceded by a feeding of fresh atherinas and were continued so long as the snappers took the food readily. The series followed one another from time to time during the day, as the appetite of the snappers permitted.

The results of the four series of July 20 are plotted in table 9. The data were first arranged in a table of the form of table 8, which combines the first two series of July 20. The number of times that blue and white fish were taken in each order was then calculated from the table in percentages of the maximum number of times that it might be taken in that order, that is, in percentages of the total number of trials involved in each series of trials of the experiment. The diagram (table 9) shows in percentages the frequency with which a colony of 100 gray snappers took blue or white atherinas in each order in 4 series of trials including 460 atherinas. The atherinas were thrown in lots of 10—5 white and 5 blue together. The percentage of fish of each color taken in each order is calculated for each series separately on the basis of the total number of times that fish of each color might have been taken in each order, *i. e.*, on the basis of the number of trials in each series. This basis is in series I, 7; in series II, 19; in series III, 5; in series IV, 15.

The solid line represents the white fish, the broken line the blue fish. The divisions on the ordinate at the left represent percentages; while in

each series the columns numbered from 1 to 10 represent the orders. This table shows in percentages for each of the four series of trials made on this day what is shown in table 8 for series I and II combined. If the snappers had, in each trial, taken all the white fish before taking any of the blue, then the solid line would run along the 100 per cent level through the first 5 spaces of each series of trials, while the broken line would continue along the same level through the second 5 spaces. Probably if a single snapper could be experimented upon with so large a number of atherinas such a result would be reached. In an experiment involving 100 snappers they are crowded together, so that the effort of each to get first at the food stimulates the others. Apparently as a result of this competi-

TABLE 9.



tion a snapper frequently takes the nearest atherina, whatever its color, so that blue fish are often taken while white fish are still present. It results that the solid line starts usually somewhere near the 75 per cent level and zigzags downward toward the zero level, while the broken line starts usually near the 25 per cent level and zigzags upward toward the 100 per cent level.

If the snappers had taken the blue fish as frequently in each order as the white, that is, had not distinguished at all between them, the solid and broken lines would coincide with one another and both would run on the 50 per cent level through the entire 10 spaces of each series of trials. If the snappers tended in the successive series of the experiment to take white and blue fish more and more indiscriminately, then in the later series there should be evident an increasing tendency for the broken and solid lines to

Fig. 5.

Fig. 6.

Fig. 5. Two blue surgeons, *Hepatus caeruleus*, and a *Chætodon ocellatus* in front of branching gorgonian, *Plexaura*.

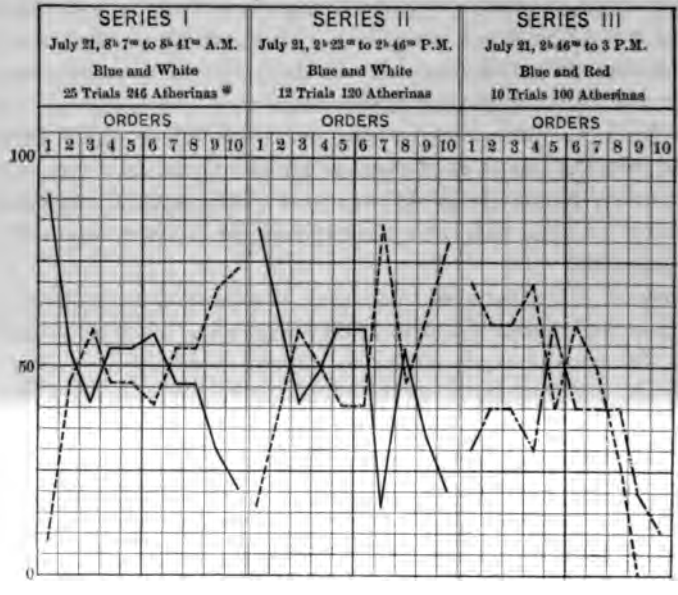
Fig. 6. A *Chætodon capistratus* over incrusting coral, *Mæandrina*, and in front of large Gorgonian.

coincide at the 50 per cent level. No such tendency appears in the diagram. Such a tendency of the two lines to approximate each other and the 50 per cent level more in the final series of the experiment than in the earlier series would then be evidence that the snappers rapidly learn the equal palatability of the blue and white atherinas. In only one respect do the lines seem to afford possible evidence that the snappers tend to discriminate less between the white and blue fish toward the end of the day's experiment. This is in the crossing of the solid and broken lines at a point which is nearer the ordinate of percentages in series III and IV than in series I and II. The two lines come together more rapidly in the third and fourth series than in the first and second. The series of July 19, 21, and 22 have also been plotted. The series of July 19 and 21 do not afford the evidence apparently shown in that of July 20 of a decrease of discrimination during a single day, nor does the series of July 22 when compared with those of earlier date show any decrease of discrimination from day to day. If the snappers could be isolated from the living atherinas which they have constantly in view, and if they could be fed continuously on blue and white fish in equal numbers, they might soon take the one in each place as frequently as the other, but with the living white fish constantly in sight as part of the natural environment, and with the blue supplied only at intervals and for a short time, this result is not to be expected.

Experiment 31: Blue and red color discrimination.—On July 21 two series of blue and white discrimination trials were made, the first at $8^h\ 7^m$ a. m., and the second at $2^h\ 40^m$ p. m. Three hundred and sixty atherians were used in addition to those involved in two preliminary feedings of normal fish. The results, as plotted in table 10, series I and II, do not differ from those shown in table 9. Immediately after the second series of 12 trials with blue and white fish there followed a series of 10 trials (involving 100 atherinas) in which red fish were substituted for the white, so that, whereas the snappers had before had a choice between white and blue and had become familiar with blue, they now had a choice between red and blue. The red atherinas were prepared as in experiment 2 and had therefore the same acid taste as the blue. The results are plotted as series III of the experiment of July 21 and are shown in table 10. The blue fish are represented as before by the broken line, while the red fish are represented by a line of dots and dashes. It is seen that the broken line occupies in series IV the position of the solid line in series I and II. The line of dots and dashes representing the red fish occupies, on the other hand, the position taken in series I and II by the broken line which represents the blue fish. In other words, the blue fish are now taken more frequently than the red in the first four orders. Blue is taken first in 70 per cent of the trials, while red is taken first in but 30 per cent. It is further to be noted that not only is the position of the broken line reversed in series III as compared with

series I and II, but it first intersects the line of dots and dashes at a point farther from the ordinate of percentages than in series II and III, a further evidence of discrimination. Of the 100 fish thrown in the 10 trials of series III, 21 remained untaken or were eliminated from the experiment through an error of the record. Of the 79 fish taken, 44 were blue and 35 were red; 30 blue fish were taken in the first 5 places as against 20 red, while 14 blue fish were taken in the second 5 places as against 15 red; 16 fish remained untaken at the close of the experiment, and of these 12 were red, while 4 were blue fish to which a small amount of red stain had been accidentally transferred. The diagram (table 10) shows in percentages in each order the

TABLE 10.



frequency with which a colony of 100 gray snappers took atherinas in each order in three series of trials. The atherinas were thrown in lots of 10. In the first two series 5 white and 5 blue were thrown together; in the third series 5 blue and 5 red were thrown together. Percentages are calculated as in table 9; 21 atherinas remained untaken in the third trial.

The plotted data seem to show conclusively that the fish discriminate between the red and blue atherinas. The approximation of the two lines in the second half of their course in series III and their descent toward the zero level is due to the fact that the snappers were at this time no longer hungry, took any but normal fish very slowly, and left many untaken. The behavior of the snappers toward the red and blue fish is further proof of discrimination, as shown by the following extract from my notes:

The difference in the behavior of the fish toward red and blue was very noticeable. They were from the first distinctly afraid of the red and took them only when they sank so that they could put the snout directly against them as though smelling. Even then they often jerked back, as does a horse under like circumstances, and did not take the fish at all, but left it to be taken by another, or perhaps took it after one or two attempts. The blue fish were all taken at once, and without preliminary "smelling." They were taken quickly. The red were taken slowly, the snappers often running a little distance with them as though gingerly tasting and then finally swallowing them.

Such hesitation as the snappers showed in taking the red fish in this experiment is to be expected even toward normal fish at the close of any experiment involving liberal feeding. The evidence of discrimination lies in the very much greater hesitation shown toward the red fish than toward the blue at the beginning of series III. The hesitation itself is merely the normal behavior of a satiated fish toward any new object in the environment, but the degree of hesitation is significant.

Since it is possible that the snappers discriminated between the red, white, and blue atherinas by reason of a difference in their luminosity or brightness and without distinguishing the colors themselves, it became necessary to determine the relative brightness of the colors employed. The following tests were made:

(1) The red, white, and blue fish were looked at against a black background in a light so feeble that colors could not be distinguished. Their brightness diminished in the order white, red, blue.

(2) Disks of cardboard were colored with the red and blue stains to match the red and blue fish and the brightness of each of these disks was then determined by the same person by comparing it on a color-wheel to a gray produced by blending black and white in known proportions. Ninety-seven degrees of white to 263 degrees of black matched the red in brightness, while 37 degrees of white and 323 degrees of black matched the blue. The luminosity of the blue compared to that of the red is therefore expressed by the fraction

$$\frac{37 \times 60 + 323}{97 \times 60 + 263} = \frac{2543 \text{ blue}}{6083 \text{ red}}$$ or approximately 5 to 12.

(3) A spectroscopic examination[1] was made by transmitted light of the dyes used and also by reflected light of pieces of cardboard stained to match the atherinas. For the latter purpose the apparatus of Mayer (1897) was used. The red was found to include light of wave-lengths between 675$\mu\mu$ to 595$\mu\mu$, while the blue included in moderate illumination light of wave-lengths between 590$\mu\mu$ and 451$\mu\mu$. A comparison of these wave-lengths with Koenig's diagram as given by Howell (1906) shows that the red falls in the most luminous part of the spectrum, while the blue falls in the least luminous part.

[1] I am indebted to Dean John O. Reed, Professor of Physics in the University of Michigan, for calibrating the spectroscope used.

Since in the color-discrimination experiments 30 and 31, the snappers preferred the white to the blue and the blue to the red, they choose in the first case the brighter fish and in the second case those less bright. They were therefore guided not by the brightness of the fish, but by their color. Had time permitted and material been available the experiments of 1905 with fresh atherinas would have been extended so as to include a red-blue series in which the red was the darker color. Other colors would also have been used.

DISCUSSION OF COLOR DISCRIMINATION EXPERIMENTS.

The colors used in the experiments described were obtained by the use of dyes. They are impure, and I know of no dyes by which pure spectral colors may be obtained. The red used shows with the spectroscope rays of all wave-lengths below the green, while the blue shows waves of all lengths above the yellow. The yellow used is nearly pure, the green includes both yellow and blue rays. We may therefore conclude that the snappers discriminate between a mixture of colors of that part of the spectrum which lies below the green and a mixture of the colors of that part which lies above the yellow, and that they discriminate yellow from a mixture of the colors of the part of the spectrum above the yellow. Whether the particular mixtures used appear to the snapper as they do to us, we can not know from the experiments. On the other hand, these mixtures may appear to the snapper precisely as they do to us and his power of color discrimination may be as accurate for all colors as our own. The only paper known to me on color discrimination in fishes is that of Washburn and Bentley (1906), where results were obtained on a single individual of *Semotilus atromaculatus*. The fish was kept in an aquarium and the methods were those of the laboratory. The results are in accord with my own. The literature of the subject is discussed by Washburn and Bentley.

VI. ESTABLISHMENT IN THE GRAY SNAPPER OF A WARNING COLOR REACTION, INVOLVING AN ASSOCIATION BETWEEN COLOR AND UNPALATABILITY.

In the experiments described in this section red atherinas were rendered unpalatable and were then fed to the Laboratory colony of gray snappers, in order to learn whether the snappers would form an association between the unpalatability of the atherinas and their color, of such a sort that they would refuse the atherinas at sight, *i. e.*, by reason of their color alone. If this should prove to be the case the color red would have come to have for the gray snapper a warning significance experimentally established under normal conditions.

In some of the preliminary experiments the red atherinas were rendered unpalatable by the use of substances not normal to the environment of the

snapper, such as quinine and red pepper. So far as the experiments went the snappers gave no evidence that these substances were distasteful. A few attempts to feed to the snappers the tissues of the medusa *Cassiopea xamachana* showed them to be distinctly unpalatable. However disguised in form or color they were rejected after a few trials, presumably on account of the contained nettle-cells. The red atherinas were then made unpalatable by sewing into the mouth of each the branching tip of a tentacle of this medusa. The tentacle had the appearance of food projecting slightly from the mouth. The atherinas thus prepared were thrown from the dock, one at a time, to the assembled colony of about 150 snappers. An additional atherina was thrown as soon as its predecessor had been taken or as soon as the behavior of the snappers showed that it would not be immediately taken. The snappers thus had at least one atherina always before them. A record was kept of the behavior of the snappers toward each atherina offered.

Experiment 32.—Occupied 3 days, July 16, 18, and 19, 1907, but is best regarded as a single experiment. The atherinas used had been preserved in 2 per cent formalin. They were rinsed and then allowed to soak for about 2 hours in a large quantity of sea-water. A few of these when offered to the snappers were taken as though fresh. Tentacles of *Cassiopea* were sewn into the mouths of others in such a way as to leave the fringed end of the tentacle projecting. The tentacled fish were then stained in fast scarlet in the manner described for experiment 1, until they were of a brilliant red color. The effect of this treatment upon the nettle-cells was not positively determined, but the result of the experiment indicates that they remained active.

Atherinas prepared in this way are referred to as *formalin tentacled reds;* fish similarly prepared but without tentacles are referred to as *formalin reds;* those prepared in formalin and washed but not stained are referred to as *formalin normals;* while formalin fish provided with tentacle but unstained are referred to as *formalin tentacled normals.* The behavior of the snappers toward each atherina offered them was recorded under one of the four heads (table 11); *taken at once* indicates that the atherina was seized as soon as it struck the water; *taken with hesitation,* that 1 to 3 seconds passed before the atherina was seized; *taken with much hesitation,* that more than about 3 seconds passed before the atherina was seized; *refused* indicates that the atherina remained untaken during the time of the series to which it belonged, or else that after the snappers had had abundant opportunity to take it, the tide carried it away, so that it could no longer be observed. Several minutes were required for an atherina to be thus carried away, and this happened only during the first two series of the experiment, in which some of the atherinas floated while others sank. In the third series the atherinas were made to sink by slitting the air bladder so that all that remained untaken were accessible to the snappers during the series and for some time afterward.

TABLE 11.

Series I, July 16, 1907, 11h30m a. m. to 12h05m p. m.; 35 minutes.

Serial Nos.	At once.	Hesitation.	Much hesitation.	Refused.	Serial Nos.	At once.	Hesitation.	Much hesitation.	Refused.	Serial Nos.	At once.	Hesitation.	Much hesitation.	Refused.
1	N	...	...	...	61	...	...	T	...	121	N	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	T	...	...		N	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		N	...	...	...
	T	...	...	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	...
	T	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	...	T		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		...	T	...	..		...	...	...	...
	T	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	...
	T	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	...
10	T	...	...	...	70	...	...	T	...	130	...	...	...	...
	T	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	...
	T	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	...
	T	...	...	...		...	...	...	T		...	...	...	...
	T	...	...	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	...	T		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	...
20	...	...	T	...	80	...	...	...	T	140	...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
30	...	T	...	...	90	...	...	R	...	150	...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	...	R		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	...	R		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		...	...	...	R		...	...	...	...
	...	...	...	T		...	...	...	R		...	...	...	...
	...	...	...	T		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
40	...	T	...	...	100	...	...	R	...	160	...	...	...	..
	...	...	T	...		...	...	...	R		...	...	...	...
	...	...	...	T		...	...	...	R		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	...	R		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	...	T		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	...	T		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
50	...	...	...	T	110	N	...	...	...	170	...	...	...	...
	...	...	...	T		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	T	...	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	T	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	T	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
60	...	...	...	T	120	N	...	...	...	180	...	...	...	...

TABLE II—Continued.

Series II, July 18, 1907, 12h30m to 12h40m p. m.; 10 minutes.

Serial Nos.	At once.	Hesitation.	Much hesitation.	Refused.	Serial Nos.	At once.	Hesitation.	Much hesitation.	Refused	Serial Nos.	At once.	Hesitation.	Much hesitation.	Refused.
1	N	...	...	...	61	...	R	...	...	121	N	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		R	...	...	...		N	...	...	...
	N	..	...	...		R	...	...	...		N	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		N	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		R	...	...	...		N	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		N	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
10	N	...	...	...	70	...	R	...	...	130	...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	...	R	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		..	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
20	R	...	...	...	80	...	R	...	...	140	...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		R	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		R	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		R	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
30	R	...	...	...	90	R	...	...	...	150	...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		R	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		R	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		R	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		R	...	...	...		...	...	...	..
	R	...	...	...		R	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	R	...	...		R	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
40	...	R	...	...	100	R	...	...	...	160	...	...	...	...
	...	R	...	...		R	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
50	R	...	...	...	110	R	...	...	...	170	...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	R	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	..	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	R	...	...		...	...	...	...
	R	...	...	...		R	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	...	R	...		N	...	...	...		.	...	...	...
	...	...	R	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	...	R	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
60	...	R	...	...	120	N	...	...	...	180	...	...	...	...

TABLE II—Continued.

Series III, July 19, 1907, 10h40m to 11h30m a. m.; 50 minutes.

Serial Nos.	At once.	Hesitation.	Much hesitation.	Refused.	Serial Nos.	At once.	Hesitation.	Much hesitation.	Refused.	Serial Nos	At once.	Hesitation.	Much hesitation.	Refused.
1	N	...	...	...	61	...	T	...	...	121	...	...	T	...
	N	...	...	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	T	...	...
	R	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	T	...
	R	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T
	R	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	T	...
	R	...	...	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	T
	R	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	T	...
	R	...	...	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...
10	R	...	...	...	70	...	...	T	...	130	...	...	T	...
	R	...	...	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...
	R	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	T	...
	R	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	T	...
	T	...	...	...		...	...	...	T		...	...	T	...
	T	...	...	...		...	..	...	T		...	...	T	...
	T	...	...	...		...	...	...	T		...	...	T	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T
	...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...		..	...	T	...
	T	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T
20	T	...	..	...	80	...	...	T	...	140	...	..	T	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	T	...
	T	...	...	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...
	...	T	...	...		...	...	...	T		...	...	...	T
	...	T	...	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...
	...	...	...	T		...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...
	T	...	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	T	...
	...	...	T	...		...	T	...	...		...	T	...	...
	T	...	...	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	T
	...	...	...	T		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	T
30	...	T	...	...	90	...	T	...	...	150	...	...	T	...
	...	...	T	...		...	T	...	...		...	..	...	T
	...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T		...	...	T	...
	...	...	...	T		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T
	...	T	...	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	T
	...	T	...	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	T
	...	...	T	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	T
	...	...	..	T		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	T
40	...	T	...	...	100	...	T	...	..	160	...	...	...	T
	...	...	...	T		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T
	...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T		...	...	...	T
	...	T	..	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	T
	..	...	T	...		...	...	T	..		...	...	...	T
	...	...	...	T		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T
	...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T
	...	T	...	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	T
	...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	T
	...	...	...	T		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	T
50	...	...	T	...	110	...	T	...	...	170	...	...	...	T
	...	...	...	T		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	T
	...	...	...	T		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	R
	...	...	T	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	R
	...	...	...	T		...	...	...	T		...	...	...	R
	...	...	T	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	R
	...	...	T	...		...	...	T	...		...	...	...	R
	...	...	T	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	R
	...	...	T	...		...	T	...	...		...	...	...	R
	...	T	...	...		...	...	T	...		N	...	...	...
60	..	...	T	...	120	...	T	...	...	180	N	...	...	...

Fig. 7

Fig. 8

Fig. 9

Fig. 7. Two *Iridio bivittatus*, slippery dick, apparently black and white striped. French grunt beneath one in background.

Fig. 8. *Elacatinus oceanops*, in lower right hand corner clinging to massive coral, *Orbicella*, on outer face of reef. Expanded *Spirobranchus tricornis* at left.

Fig. 9. Gray snapper, *Lutianus Griseus*, over coral sand near shore.

TABLE II, Series III—Continued.

Serial Nos.	At once.	Hesitation.	Much hesitation.	Refused.	Serial Nos.	At once.	Hesitation.	Much hesitation.	Refused.	Serial Nos.	At once.	Hesitation.	Much hesitation.	Refused.
181	N	...	...	...	201	N	...	...	...	221	...	...	..	...
	N	...	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
190	N	...	...	...	210	...	...	...	...	230	...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
	N	...	...	...		...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
200	N	...	...	...	220	...	...	...	...	240	...	...	...	...

Table II shows behavior of the Laboratory colony of gray snappers toward each individual of 3 series of atherinas. N = formalin normal; R = formalin red; T = formalin tentacled red.

At the beginning of each series formalin normals were thrown to see whether the snappers were feeding with their usual avidity. These were followed, except in series II, by formalin tentacled reds and these in turn by formalin reds. The last atherinas thrown in each series were formalin normals.

Table II records the behavior of the snappers toward each individual of three series of atherinas. Here the normal fish are represented by the letter N, the formalin red by R, and the formalin tentacled red by T. Opposite the serial number of each atherina thrown it is represented by its appropriate letter placed in one of four columns; in the first if taken at once, the second if taken with hesitation, the third with much hesitation, fourth refused. The record of series I starts with 3 formalin normals all taken at once. These are followed by formalin tentacled reds. Of the first 13 of these, 9 are taken at once, 3 with much hesitation, and 1 refused. As the record continues it is seen that but 1 of these tentacled fish is afterwards taken at once, while the number taken with much hesitation and the number refused both increase toward the end. Of the 15 tentacled fish that were untaken, 11 are in the second 40 of the 80 tentacled fish thrown. The time required by the snappers to take tentacled fish thus increases as the series lengthens, so that the letters representing these fish shift more and more to the right in the 4 vertical columns. The untentacled red fish (R) follow the tentacled and it is seen that they are all refused or taken with

much hesitation. They are treated like tentacled reds. They are followed in turn by formalin normals and these are all taken at once precisely as at the beginning of the series.

In series II formalin normals offered at the beginning are all taken at once. These are followed by formalin reds, a large number of which are taken at once, more especially in the first half of the series. Nearly all those taken with hesitation are in the second half of the series. Few are taken with great hesitation, and none are refused. Formalin normals offered at the end of the series are all taken at once. No tentacled fish were offered in this series and it has little bearing on the general result.

In series III formalin normals and formalin reds were both taken at once at the beginning. These were followed by formalin tentacled reds, only 8 of which were taken at once and these all in the first 15. Those after the first 15 were taken with hesitation, which increased as the series lengthened. All but 2 of the last 50 were either taken with great hesitation or refused. The last 16 were refused. Formalin reds offered immediately after the tentacled reds were all refused, while formalin normals following these were all taken at once. The behavior of the snappers toward red and white fish, which differ from each other only in color, is thus in striking contrast at the beginning and at the end of series III. At the beginning of the series the formalin reds are taken as readily as the formalin normals (white), but at the end, after the snappers have had experience of tentacled reds, formalin reds (untentacled) are refused, while formalin normals (white) are still taken. The fact that formalin normals are taken at once at the end of the series shows that any hesitation shown toward formalin tentacled reds earlier in the series is not due to loss of appetite. The snappers were hungry throughout each series. My notes record that formalin normals were taken at the end of series I, "and with the greatest avidity."

If either the first or third series could have been carried through on a single snapper, then presumably all the tentacled red fish taken would have fallen at the beginning of the series, the hesitation would then have gradually increased, and all the tentacled fish refused would have fallen at the end of the series. In an experiment dealing with a large number of snappers tentacled fish may be taken in any part of the series by snappers that have not yet had experience of them. Nevertheless, as shown in table 11, tentacled fish taken at once fall in the first part of each series. Thus in series I, all but one of the tentacled atherinas recorded as "taken at once" are in the first fourth of the tentacled part of the series. In series III, all the tentacled fish recorded as "taken at once" fall in the first tenth of the tentacled fish. On the other hand, tentacled fish "refused" fall chiefly near the end of each series. Thus in series I eleven fifteenths of those refused fall in the second half of the part of the series which they compose, while in series III about one-third of those refused fall at the end—a most significant fact.

The three series shown in detail in table 11 are summarized in table 12, to show the total number of atherinas of each sort offered and the total number falling in each category. Series I requires no further comment. Series II has little bearing on the general result. It was introduced to determine whether the experience of the snappers with tentacled reds in series I had been of such a character as to lead them to refuse red atherinas even when not tentacled. This did not yet prove to be the case and all the red fish offered were taken, though less readily than the uncolored formalin normals.

TABLE 12.

Series and time.	Atherinas offered.	No. offered.	Taken at once.	Taken with hesitation.	Taken with much hesitation.	Refused.
Series I, July 16, 1907, 11h 30m a. m. to 12h 05m p. m.; *35 minutes.*	Formalin normals.....	3	3	0	0	0
	Formalin tentacled reds.	80	10	28	27	*15
	Formalin reds.....	20	0	0	13	* 7
	Formalin normals.....	20	20	0	0	0
	Total.....	123	.....	.....	.....	.....
Series II, July 18, 1907, 12h 30m to 12h 40m p. m.; *10 minutes.*	Formalin normals.....	10	10	0	0	0
	Formalin reds	106	59	41	6	0
	Formalin normals.....	10	10	0	0	0
	Total.....	126	.....	.....	.....	.....
Series III, July 19, 1907, 10h 40m to 11h 30m a. m.; *50 minutes.*	Formalin normals.....	3	3	0	0	0
	Formalin reds.....	10	10	0	0	0
	Formalin tentacled reds.	158	†8	20	85	§‡45
	Formalin reds	7	0	0	0	§ 7
	Formalin normals.....	30	30	0	0	0
	Total.....	208	.....	.....	.....	.....

* The fish that remained untaken floated; although none of the formalin normals that floated remained untaken.
† Nos. 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 9, 13, 15. ‡ Including Nos. 143 to 158. § All these fish sank.

All the atherinas used in series III were made to sink, so that tentacled fish that had been refused sank slowly through the colony of snappers and lay afterward on the bottom untouched. Seven formalin reds (without tentacles) were then offered and all were refused and remained untouched on the bottom. Immediately afterward 30 formalin normals were thrown. My notes record "all were taken as fast as fed, the first few with slight hesitation, the others immediately." The hesitation referred to was so slight that it does not appear in table 11.

An association between red and unpalatability thus appears to have been established in the individuals of this colony of 150 snappers. If we exclude series II this has resulted from 178 experiences of swallowing the tentacled fish. This is an average of but little more than one experience to each snapper. Series II closed at 11h 30m a. m. At 12h 15m p. m. a few formalin normals were thrown. The first were taken with a little hesitation, the others with a rush and without hesitation. Three formalin tentacled reds were then thrown; the first was taken with some hesitation, while

the second and third were refused. Three formalin reds were then thrown and all refused. The 3 sorts of atherinas, 3 of each, were again offered immediately and in the same order. The formalin normals were taken, the reds, both tentacled and untentacled, were refused.

Since the tentacles project slightly from their mouths, formalin tentacled red atherinas differ from normal fish not only in color, but also in form. The snappers might therefore recognize them as unpalatable either by reason of their color or form or by both characteristics. That the snappers actually form an association between the disagreeable quality of the red tentacled atherinas and their color is shown by their refusal to take red atherinas which are not tentacled. As a further test, 20 formalin tentacled atherinas (uncolored) were offered to the laboratory colony of snappers at 1^h 15^m p. m. on July 19, 1907. Five formalin normals were first thrown and these were followed by the 20 formalin tentacled normals. All were taken without hesitation. Several red fish, some tentacled, others untentacled, were then thrown and remained for some time untaken, but were finally taken. The fact that white fish with tentacles are taken at once is evidence that the discrimination is by color, not by form. That red fish are still taken, though after much hesitation, is probably due in part to their having been offered immediately after a considerable number of formalin normals, in part to the presence in the colony of snappers whose individual experience of the unpalatable red was not yet sufficient to give to the color a warning significance. Such irregularities are to be expected in dealing in mass experiments with an entire colony of snappers. That experiment 32 gave to the color red a warning significance for the snappers, so that red atherinas were afterward for some time protected from their attacks by reason of their color, is shown in the next section of this paper.

The details of the behavior of the snappers toward the various sorts of atherinas used is of interest as enforcing the conclusion drawn from the tables and is here abstracted from my notes.

(*a*) *Formalin normals at the beginning of the series.*—The atherinas are taken when they strike the water. All the snappers rush at them and the successful fish snap so vigorously that they send spurts of water above the surface as they strike it with their tails in turning.

(*b*) *Formalin tentacled reds.*—These were taken quickly at first, but in a different manner from the formalin normals. The snappers did not rush at them with so much vigor as to produce a splash at the surface. As the feeding continued the tentacled reds were taken with increasing hesitation. Most of those taken were then approached deliberately. If the approach brought the snapper into contact with the tentacles he at once jerked back. This he sometimes appeared to do without contact with the tentacles. Sometimes the snapper jerked back upon contact with the sides of the atherina. This approach and retreat was often several times repeated by the same snapper. If an atherina was taken after being thus approached it was taken gingerly by the side or tail in such a way that the snapper did not come into

contact with the tentacles. It was carried a little way, protruding from the mouth, and then slowly swallowed. After approaching an atherina and jerking back from it one or more times it often happened that a snapper swam away. The atherina might then be approached by many snappers in turn before being finally taken. The time taken by one or more snappers in approaching an atherina and retreating from it is that which appears in the record as "hesitation."

Early in a series many snappers rushed toward each tentacled red as it was thrown. Later in the series the number of snappers that responded by a rush grew progressively less, until toward the end of the series no snappers rushed forward when a tentacled red was thrown (evidence that the splash of the falling atherina is not a sufficient stimulus to cause the rapid approach of the snappers). The atherinas that were taken late in the red series were taken by the few snappers that happened to be nearest the point at which the fish struck the surface of the water. There was no general rush toward that point. The nearest snappers approached slowly and behaved in the manner already described. In short, the extent to which the individuals of the colony take part in the rush at any atherina appears to be determined by the behavior of those snappers that happen to be nearest the atherina when it strikes the water. If these nearest snappers rush vigorously there is general participation by the other individuals of the colony. If the nearest individuals approach more slowly, no such general participation takes place. A localized stimulus applied to one of the higher animals may, if weak, produce only localized response, but may, if strong, throw the entire organism into vigorous response. Similarly the vigor with which a colony of snappers responds to an atherina appears to depend on the extent to which the atherina serves as a stimulus to the individuals nearest to it.

(*c*) *Formalin reds following formalin tentacled reds.*—These were treated precisely like tentacled reds. Probably the snappers would have behaved no differently had all the reds been tentacled.

(*d*) *Formalin normals following formalin reds* (*tentacled or untentacled*).—The behavior of the snappers is best shown by an extract from my notes on series I. "The change in the behavior of the snappers was most marked. All of them rushed at once at each fish, so that the water fairly boiled. A moment earlier very few snappers had paid any attention to the reds and those that were taken were taken usually by the snapper that happened to be near." Sometimes when a change is made from reds to formalin normals the first few of these are taken by the nearest snappers and with slight hesitation. This hesitation rapidly disappears as more normals are thrown, and the rushes quickly become as vigorous as possible and are participated in by the whole colony. The increasing vigor with which the nearest snappers respond to successive atherinas makes itself rapidly felt in the rest of the colony.

Experiment 33.—As a control on experiment 32, in which the laboratory colony was used, the following experiment was tried on July 19, 1907, at $1^h\ 36^m$ p. m., on the west lighthouse colony, which was without experience of tentacled fish. Atherinas were offered as follows: (1) 12 formalin normals; (2) 44 formalin reds; (3) 30 formalin tentacled reds; (4) 30 formalin normals. All were taken at once without hesitation. No difference

could be observed in the way in which red and white fish were taken by individual snappers or by the colony as a whole. Absence of hesitation in taking tentacled fish is attributable in the beginning to inexperience. That 30 tentacled fish should be so taken is no doubt due to hunger, since this colony had received less food than any other. The hesitation and refusal shown toward red by the laboratory colony is therefore attributable to experience gained during experiment 32. It is neither instinctive nor the result of a previously formed habit.

In 1905 an experiment was carried out differing from that described in the present section only in that the atherinas used were fresh, not preserved in formalin. Excluding some very brief preliminary trials the experiment of 1905 extended over but a single day. Between 9^h 48^m and 3^h 11^m p. m. there were fed to the laboratory colony of about 100 snappers 117 fresh tentacled red atherinas, divided into lots of from 8 to 20, offered at intervals of 30 to 60 minutes; 20 of these, including the last 8, remained untaken, although normal fish were taken readily at all times. The experiment of 1907 is an extension and confirmation of that of 1905.

The results of these experiments may now be briefly stated as follows:

> When red atherinas, rendered unpalatable by attaching to each a part of a tentacle of *Cassiopea,* are offered to a colony of gray snappers, they are at first taken instantly, later taken after the lapse of a longer or shorter time, and finally refused. In 1907 (experiment 32) the final refusal resulted (omitting series II) from feeding to about 150 snappers, 238 formalin tentacled red atherinas, of which 178 were taken and 60 refused. The feeding required 1 hour and 25 minutes, divided into 2 periods of 35 and 50 minutes, separated by an interval of 3 days. In this time there was an average of but little more than one unpalatable atherina taken for each snapper. This sufficed to form for the snappers an association between red and the quality or qualities which rendered the atherinas unpalatable of such a sort that formalin red atherinas were thereafter refused. Formalin red atherinas were refused even when not tentacled, while formalin normal atherinas (uncolored) were taken whether tentacled or not, hence the association is between color and the quality which renders the atherinas unpalatable, not between the form of the tentacled atherinas and that quality. In a second colony of snappers formalin red atherinas were taken readily, in considerable numbers (experiment 33) whether tentacled or not, hence their refusal by the first colony can not be attributed to an instinctive or habitual avoidance of red. Their acceptance by the first colony at the beginning of experiment 32 points to the same conclusion.
>
> The statement seems therefore warranted that in experiment 32 the color came to have for the snappers a warning meaning. A warning color was artificially established. This result was reached in spite of the fact that atherina is the normal food of the gray snapper at the time of year at which the experiments were made. By changing the color of this food and rendering it unpalatable the

natural, positive response of the snappers toward it was inhibited. This positive response, in so far as it involves the taking of small, near, possible-food objects, is doubtless instinctive; in so far as it involves taking the specific food atherina it is habitual. Had the food offered been such that the snappers had had no previous experience of it, their positive response would have been instinctive only. To inhibit such a general instinctive response requires, as shown elsewhere in this paper (p. 307), a much smaller number of experiences than are necessary to inhibit a response that has become habitual. That an habitual response, toward a particular food commonly present in the environment should be as readily inhibited as in experiment 32 was unexpected and shows a high degree of modifiability in the behavior of the snappers.

VII. THE RETENTION OF THE RED-UNPALATABILITY WARNING ASSOCIATION IN THE GRAY SNAPPERS (MEMORY).

The color red had come to have a warning significance for the gray snappers as a result of their experience with unpalatable red atherinas—an experience which closed on July 19, 1907. This colony was not afterwards offered red atherinas, except at the time indicated below and for the purpose of testing the retention of the red-unpalatability association. On July 23 the colony was fed from 200 to 300 formalin atherinas, newly rinsed in seawater to remove the formalin. These were taken, but many of them were afterwards ejected and lay on the bottom unnoticed. On July 24 an attempt was made to feed these snappers on formalin blue atherinas, but after taking 30 or 40 they began to eject them and would then take no more. On July 26 the colony took 21 out of 30 blue and yellow formalin atherinas offered them.

On July 27, 8 days after the red warning association had been established, I tried all the morning to get the snappers of this colony to take formalin red atherinas (untentacled). They took a few very slowly and then stopped. They took formalin normals more readily and also took blue, but if red was offered immediately after blue or white, it was, even then, taken very slowly. Apparently the snappers still retained the red unpalatability association. The red used was a cardinal red—much purer than the red used in the association experiments.

On August 8, 20 days after the close of the association experiment with formalin tentacled red atherinas, the last attempt was made to feed the laboratory colony on red fish. All the red and blue and yellow atherinas used had been removed from formalin, washed and stained some 10 days before, and had since laid in a moist atmosphere, so that the last trace of formalin had probably evaporated from them. Formalin blue atherinas were first thrown and 4 or 5 of these were taken very carefully. Red was then thrown. Some of both blue and red sank, others floated. *The reds remained entirely untouched,* even while they sank among the snappers and

lay on the bottom. They were not even snapped at or closely examined; in fact they excited no visible interest. Formalin normals (uncolored) were then taken directly from 2 per cent formalin, rinsed, and thrown while still saturated with formalin. They were taken at once, and about 20 were thus taken. Additional reds and some yellows were then offered, but remained practically unnoticed. The stimulus of an immediately preceding feeding on white did not result in the taking of red or yellow.

The behavior of the snappers showed quite conclusively their avoidance of red, which was even more marked than immediately after the establishment of the red-unpalatability association. At that time and also on July 27 an occasional red fish was taken, but on August 8 they remained not only untaken, but appeared to excite no interest.

Although the snappers refused red on August 8 they also refused yellow, while they took blue less readily than before. The warning meaning conveyed thus appears to have been transferred from the red to the yellow, and to a less extent to the blue. Probably atherinas of all colors would have been avoided, and possibly in proportion to the likeness of the respective colors to red. Nevertheless formalin normal atherinas (white) were taken, apparently as readily as ever.

The facts stated in this section seem to me to warrant the conclusion that the red-unpalatability association established on July 19 was still effective on August 8. The associative memory of the snapper has at least this duration. I left the island on my return north on that day.

VIII. RESULTS OF FEEDING THE LABORATORY COLONY OF GRAY SNAPPERS ON CONSPICUOUSLY COLORED CORAL-REEF FISH.

In the preceding sections of this paper evidence is given to show that the gray snapper distinguishes colors, forms with great rapidity associations involving color discrimination, and retains these associations for a considerable time. It has been further shown that it is possible, in a short time, to establish in the gray snapper a warning-color association, of such a sort that its natural prey is protected from attacks when artificially warningly colored. All this lends support to the theory of warning coloration as applied to coral-reef fishes, yet it remains to be learned by experiment whether any of these fish are actually protected from the attacks of the gray snapper by the assumed combination of conspicuous coloration with unpalatability. To test this assumption as many as possible of the coral-reef fishes were collected and fed to the Laboratory colony of snappers. These fish were usually thrown living from the dock, so that they fell with a splash into the water near the snappers. A few were slipped in quietly near the shore, so that, as they swam seaward, their approach to the snappers was more normal. A few of the fish were dead when offered to the snappers, but most of them were very active and made every effort to escape. A few individuals of *Aldubefduf marginatus* were rendered immobile by pithing.

Fig. 10.

Fig. 11.

Fig. 10. Group of large coral-reef fishes in front of branching gorgonians and sea fan, *Rhipidogorgia*.

Fig. 11. Grup of large coral-reef fishes, chiefly *Haemulon sciurus*. Purple sea fan, *Rhipidogorgia*, at left.

The results of these feeding experiments are shown in table 13, which also includes one amphibian. The fishes fed were, with one exception (*Chætodon ocellatus*), small enough to be taken by the snappers. Adult individuals of the larger species would have been protected by their size. The salient features of the coloration are given in table 13. For details the reader is referred to systematic treatises (Jordan and Evermann, 1896; Evermann and Marsh, 1900). The color and patterns given in the table are those of the fish seen by the writer in their natural habitat at a little distance, as the fish appear to the snappers. The descriptions have been checked by comparison with captured fish. Preserved fish or those in aquaria (upon which systematic descriptions are usually based) are less brilliantly colored. Of the species listed, only *Sparisoma flavescens* is unquestionably protectively colored, though *Caranx crysos* may be so. The others are in varying degrees conspicuous. *Iridio bivittatus* (plate 4, fig. 7) and the two species of *Thalassoma* vary considerably. While less conspicuous than the others they are to my eye conspicuous. Even casual observation of the remaining species in their natural habitat shows that they are highly conspicuous. Black is a very common color; bright orange and bright yellow are common. Bright metallic blue and green are also common. Scarlet is not rare. All these colors are in strong contrast to those of the reefs. Not only are the colors conspicuous, but they are combined in patterns of contrasting colors. Black and white, black and yellow, or black, white, and yellow in alternating bands or stripes are frequent patterns (*Abudefduf marginatus,* plate 1; *Iridio bivittatus,* plate 4, fig. 7; *Lutianus griseus* juv.; *Chætodon ocellatus,* plate 3, fig. 5; *Chætodon capistratus,* plate 3, fig. 6; *Anisotremus virginicus* juv.; *Pomacanthus arcuatus* juv.; *Angelichthys ciliaris; Eques pulcher*).

Light metallic blue is found alternating in stripes or bands with blue so dark as to be seemingly black (*Elacatinus oceanops,* plate 4, fig. 8), and with these is sometimes associated a metallic green (*Thalassoma bifaciatum*). Orange may be combined with metallic blue or black so that each covers uninterruptably about half the surface of the fish (*Pomacentrus leucostictus, Pomacentrus planifrons*) or yellow and blue may occur in alternating stripes (*Hæmulon sciurus, Hæmulon flavolineatum,* plate 2, fig. 3). Scarlet may cover the whole surface or be combined with black (*Amia* (*Apogon*) *sellicauda*). A uniform black is common (*Pomacentrus leucostictus* at times, *Hepatus hepatus* juv., plate 5, fig. 10, at a little distance).

The colors and patterns are those typical of warningly-colored insects (*cf.* Poulton, 1887, for a list of such colors in insects). They make their possessor conspicuous in its normal environment (see plates 1 to 5). When the coral-reef fish are seen by an observer in air he looks through the surface film of the water and sees the fish usually in sharp contrast against the gray-white sand or rock. It seemed to me worth while to find out whether the fish are equally conspicuous when seen by one beneath the sur-

face of the water, when seen as their enemies see them. They are then viewed at a different angle. They appear at times against the reef or bottom, at times against the totally reflecting surface film, and at other times against the blue translucence of the more distant water. I have been able to assure myself of the conspicuousness of the fish under these circumstances by two methods. (1) By the use of a reflecting water-glass,[1] I have succeeded, without using a diver's suit, in seeing fish as they appear to other fish. (2) By means of a submerged camera (Reighard, 1908) I have photographed them while they were engaged in their usual activities in their normal environment. Several of these photographs are reproduced in plates 1 to 5, and are sufficiently described in the explanations of the plates. They show certain of these fish as they appear to a submerged observer and seem to me to afford a sufficient demonstration of their conspicuousness. (For further evidence see the plates in Evermann and Marsh, 1902; Jordan and Evermann, 1905; Jordan and Seale, 1906; and Saville-Kent, 1893.)

Many of these fish are rendered still more conspicuous by their form and movements. The great compression of the body (*Chætodon*, plate 3; *Pomacanthus, Angelichthys, Hepatus*, plate 3, fig. 5; plate 5) exposes to view a greater surface which may be further increased by the expansion of the dorsal and anal fins. The movements of the same fish are peculiarly slow and erratic and suggest those of a butterfly on the wing. This peculiarity arises from the use of the pectoral fins rather than the caudal in ordinary progressive movements. The caudal appears to be held in reserve for emergencies, as when the fish are forced to flee to shelter. This erratic, jerky method of locomotion by means of the pectorals is not confined to forms with compressed bodies and expanded fins, but is found also in all the Labridæ observed (*Thalassoma, Iridio, Sparisoma, Scarus, et al.*).

[1] This is a rectangular box of galvanized iron, 2 feet long and with ends 6 by 8 inches. In the interior of the box at each end is a mirror firmly fixed in a metallic setting and placed at an angle of 45° with the long axis of the box. The reflecting faces of the two mirrors are consequently parallel and they are directed toward each other. One end is heavily weighted with lead, so that when placed in water the box floats in an upright position with about 10 inches of the upper end projecting above the surface. Opposite the lower mirror is an opening 6 by 8 inches filled with plate glass bedded in aquarium cement. Opposite the upper mirror are 2 tubes soldered to openings in the side of the box and so spaced that the observer may look through them at the upper mirror. The tubes are lined with chamois skin and so constructed that the objective ends of a pair of field glasses may be inserted into them and firmly clamped in place. A handle on either side of the box enables it to be held steady. The observer, while wading, holds the box in front of him with the lower end immersed. He may then see objects beneath the surface reflected in the two mirrors, just as they would appear to him if his head were beneath the surface. In using this apparatus I finally dispensed with the field glasses, chiefly because I was able to get so near the fish that their use was unnecessary, but partly because the double images formed by the glass mirrors interfered somewhat with their use. The apparatus would be more efficient if double images were avoided by the use of metallic mirrors. These could be kept from tarnishing by sealing the box hermetically by means of glass plates cemented over the inner ends of the tubes for the eyes. With such an apparatus field glasses could be used and, within the limits set by the opacity of the water, the fish could be studied with them as birds are studied in air.

TABLE 13.—*Result of feeding 22 species of teleostean fishes and one amphibian to the Laboratory colony of gray snappers in July, 1905, and July, 1907.*†

Serial No.	Name.	Length.	No. fed.	How fed.	Coloration and armature.	Result.
		Inches.				
1	Abudefduf marginatus.	1 to 2	11	4 living, 7 with spinal cord cut, from dock.	Yellow and black banded.....	2 living taken, 3 living escaped, 6 pithed taken.
2	Angelichthys (Holocanthus) ciliaris.	5	1	Dead from dock.	Body chiefly bright blue, fins chiefly bright yellow, *preopercular spines.*	Taken at once.
3	Amia sellicauda.*	1.5 to 3.5	2	Living, from dock.	Scarlet, 2 black spots.....	Taken at once.
4	Anisotremus virginicus.	1 to 2	2	Living, from dock.	Yellow, with 2 black stripes, black caudal spot.	1 taken after short pursuit, 1 immediately.
5	Caranx crysos...	2.5	2	Living, from shore.	Silvery, yellow stripe.....	1 taken at once, 1 escaped.
6	Chætodon capistratus.	1.75	1	Living, from dock.	White, black bands and black spot; *large dorsal and anal spines.*	Taken at once.
7	Chætodon ocellatus.	4	1	Living, from dock.	Silvery ground, 2 wide black bands. Fins yellow in part. *Large dorsal and anal spines.*	Attacked, but escaped.
8	Chylomycterus schœpfi.	2 to 4	4	3 living, 1 dead, from dock.	Greenish, heavy black stripes; *body armed with spines.*	2 fishes taken, 2 and 3 inches long; 2 fishes escaped, 3 and 5 inches long.
9	Echineis naucrates.	6	1	Living, from dock.	Broad stripes, nearly black and white.	Taken at once.
10	Elacatinus oceanops.	2	2	Living, from dock.	Broad light and blue-black stripes.	1 escaped, 1 taken at once.
11	Eques pulcher...	2 5	1	Living, from dock.	Black and white conspicuous stripes.	Taken at once.
12	Hæmulon sciurus.	3.5 to 4	2	Living, from dock.	Blue and yellow stripes	Taken at once
13	Hæmulon flavolineatum.	2.5	2	1 dead, 1 living, from dock.	Blue and yellow stripes	Taken at once.
14	Hepatus hepatus.	3 to 4.5	4	Living, from dock.	Black; *lancet on caudal peduncle.*	Taken at once.
15	Iridio (Halichœres) bivittatus.	3 to 8	11	Living, from dock.	Gray, dorsal line and sides with broad dark brown stripes.	Taken at once.
16	Lutianus griseus, *juv.*	2	3	Living, from dock	Yellow-and-black banded	Taken at once.
17	Pomacentrus leucostictus.	2.5 to 4	12	8 dead, 4 living, from dock.	Half orange, half blue or black.....	Taken at once.
18	Pomacentrus leucostictus.	2.5 to 4	10	2 dead, 8 living, from dock.	All black	Taken at once.
19	Pomacentrus planifrons.	2	2	Dead, from dock.	Half orange, half blue or black.....	Taken at once.
20	Pomacanthus arcuatus.	1.25	1	Living, from dock.	Black, 5 conspicuous yellow bands, blue spots. *Preopercular spine.*	Taken slowly.
21	Sparisoma flavescens.	2.25	1	Living, from shore.	Mottled, olive and brown (protective colors).	Taken at once.
22	Thalassoma bifasciatum.	4 to 6	4	2 living, 2 dead, from dock.	Blue head, green body, black band between.	Taken at once.
23	Thalassoma nitidum	4 to 6	13	9 living, 4 dead, from dock.	Very variable, usually green with lateral purple stripe.	Taken at once.
24	Diemyctilus viridescens.	4	1	Living, from dock.	Red.....	Taken at once.
			94			

* 2 living specimens fed to a goby in an aquarium were at once taken.

† The authorities for the scientific names in the table are to be found in Jordan and Thompson (1905). They are here omitted through lack of space.

Table 13 shows that with few exceptions these conspicuous fish were at once taken by the snappers. Some of them were taken in spite of possessing both conspicuousness and unpleasant atributes. Thus *Pomacanthus* has a formidable spine on the preopercle, while *Angelichthys* has this and smaller spines besides. *Chætodon* has strong, erectile spines at the front of dorsal and anal. *Chylomycterus* inflates itself when disturbed and thus erects the many strong spines scattered over the body. *Hepatus* is armed with the

well-known and formidable lancet at the base of the tail (plate 3, fig. 5; plate 5, fig. 10). These are all weapons which the fish habitually use. There is no evidence that the color of any of the species afforded them the least protection against the snappers. These fish, with the exception of *Caranx, Chylomycterus,* and *Leptechineis,* are reef-fish. The snappers which frequent the inner reefs are familiar with them; they are familiar with the snappers. That their colors or patterns have no warning significance for the snappers is shown by the following facts:

(*a*) The snappers took them at once. They showed no trace of the hesitation or refusal shown, after experience, toward tentacled red atherinas.

(*b*) The fish attempted to escape, sometimes toward the shore, sometimes toward some other near shelter, such as is afforded by the spiles of the dock or by the floating live-boxes beneath it. In this respect their behavior contrasts with that of many typical, warningly-colored animals (*e. g.,* the skunk and "Belt's frog," Belt, 1874), which do not flee from their enemies, but depend for protection on their color.

The fish which escaped were either speedy and not conspicuous, or were hindered rather than helped by their conspicuousness. The following details of these escapes illustrate this:

(*a*) *Caranx crysos* is silvery and yellow, and not conspicuous when seen on the yellow-white sand. One individual, 2.5 inches long, was released 2 or 3 feet from shore. It was pursued by snappers and fled along shore as near as possible to the water's edge. It was several times captured with a net and again released near the snappers, but each time it behaved in the same way and finally escaped by following the shore. A second individual, thrown from shore to a distance of 6 or 8 feet, was at once taken.

(*b*) *Chætodon ocellatus* (plate 3, fig. 5).—An individual 5 inches long was thrown from the dock after the snappers had been brought together by feeding them several atherinas. It was at once viciously attacked by a large number of snappers together, and was lost to sight for an instant. As the snappers separated, the *Chætodon* was seen apparently uninjured and with its spines fully erected. It immediately started seaward and was not further molested. An individual 1.75 inches long, of a rather less conspicuous species (*C. capistratus,* plate 3, fig. 6), was at once taken. The *C. ocellatus,* 4 inches long, was about 4 inches deep from tip of longest dorsal spines to tip of longest anal spine. Such a fish is clearly protected by its size and armature, but not by its coloration, while a smaller individual of a closely related species (*C. capistratus*), conspicuous and provided with means of defense, is readily taken.

(*c*) *Chylomycterus schæpfi.*—(1) A specimen 3 inches long was thrown from the dock. It swam vigorously seaward at the surface, followed by a dozen snappers, which swam about below, approaching and receding. It was finally lost to sight and not taken.

(2) An individual about 5 inches long was thrown. It swam toward shore and was picked up and thrown farther seaward. The snappers collected beneath it and it inflated itself at sight of them, so far as could be seen without being touched by them. It then deflated itself and swam more rapidly so near the surface that the movements of its pectorals disturbed the

surface water. Several times it was seized by the snappers and again released. It could not be seen whether it again inflated itself, but it was finally lost to sight seaward and probably escaped.

(3) An individual 3 inches long was thrown outside the dock. The snappers followed it for 5 or 6 rods, swimming below it and watching it, but did not seize it. When it had gone out over the dark vegetation-covered bottom, I followed in a row boat. It was swimming at the surface, making with the pectorals a little eddy visible at a considerable distance. It moved so slowly that a 16-foot dinghy could be brought to it by paddling stern foremost with a single oar. Nevertheless I had difficulty in capturing it in a small tin can, because, when approached, it changed its course and dodged about. It was finally captured and thrown from the dock on the shore side. It was already inflated. The short tail, projecting like the neck of a jug from the spherical body, was seemingly the only part of the fish that could be seized. After a moment's hesitation the fish was taken by the tail by an unusually large snapper. He took it to the bottom and mauled it back and forth there as though to force it into his mouth or burst it. He finally lost his hold on it and a second fish seized it by the tail. It passed then to a third and a fourth and each in turn mauled it on the bottom. The fourth fish finally forced it into his mouth and it disappeared.

(4) An individual a little less than 3 inches long was thrown dead from the dock and was at once taken. It was carried 5 or 6 rods down the shore, apparently dropped, and then picked up by another fish. A careful search failed to find it, and it was recorded as finally taken.

Chylomycterus is an occasional visitor in this region and does not occur normally on the reefs, but is often found in the open water in considerable numbers. It is conspicuous in open water. On account of its relative unfamiliarity it appeared to offer a new problem to most of the snappers, a problem involving erratic movement, together with inflation of a heavily-spined body. The problem was nevertheless speedily solved. In the case of No. 3 a single large snapper, possibly with previous experience of *Chylomycterus*, led in the solution; the others quickly followed. Conspicuousness was here a disadvantage.

(*d*) *Abudefduf marginatus*.—This very conspicuous fish is often found with the snappers when full grown. Its yellow and black bands suggest a hornet (see plate 1, figs. 1 and 2). It is deep-bodied, but its dorsal and anal spines are relatively weak (*cf. Chætodon*). It swims slowly, but is very agile, as shown by the following experiences: Two young individuals, 0.5 inch and 1.5 inches long, were placed in a cylindrical aquarium 7.5 inches in diameter and could then be captured only with great difficulty by the use of a conical net with a 4-inch opening. Two young *Lutianus griseus* about 1.66 inches long could be readily picked up from the same aquarium with the same net. It is exceedingly difficult to capture *Adudefduf* with a net 3 feet in diameter in open water. It usually escapes over the rim. Eleven individuals were thrown from the dock to the snappers, 4 of these being alive and active. The results were as follows:

(1) Very active, was taken at once.

(2) Went about 15 feet pursued by snappers, but finally reached one of the live-boxes and was left unmolested.

(3) Was pursued by snappers which came within 8 or 10 inches of it. It swam to a spile underneath the dock and was left unmolested.

(4) Swam to the live-box without being pursued.

The 3 individuals which escaped joined others of their species which had been for some days living apparently unmolested against the flat bottom and sides of a large, floating live-box. This little group of perhaps a dozen small *Abudefduf* was within a few feet of 100 or more voracious snappers. They were never seen to go more than a foot or two from the surface of the box when feeding. When approached they retreated close to the box, which was smooth on the outside and had no crannies in which they could find shelter. The snappers were never seen to attempt the difficult task of capturing one of these agile little fish against the smooth, hard surface of the box. Not their coloration, but nearness to a large, hard surface protected them.

(5) Was nearly dead when thrown and was at once taken. The remaining 6 *Abudefduf* were made immobile by cutting the spinal cord.

(6) and (7) Thrown in the usual way. They were not at first noticed, but as they sank and made no effort to escape, they were seized.

(8) (9) (10) and (11) Offered to the snappers in the following manner: Bread crumbs were thrown to the living *Abudefduf* at the side of the live-box. They fed on these at and near the surface, but did not venture to follow them as they sank. Beneath the *Abudefduf* the snappers assembled to feed on the sinking bread crumbs. The immobile *Abudefduf* were dropped one at a time past the edge of the live-box, so that they fell among the living ones, which were only 2 or 3 feet above the snappers. As the first immobile (No. 8) *Abudefduf* sank it was followed for a foot or so by one or two living individuals. The snappers gave no heed to either. The living fish returned to the surface, the motionless one sank, still unheeded, among the snappers. When it had reached the bottom and lain there for a moment it was quickly seized. (9) (10) (11) were thrown in precisely the same way as (8), and with the same result.

Clearly the *Abudefduf* near the live-box are treated by the snappers as inaccessible, while individuals of the same species at a distance from the live-box are eagerly pursued and often captured. Immobile *Abudefduf* that sink from the live-box group among the snappers are taken only after a short time, time enough to bring to the snappers a perception of their distinctness from the immune live-box group.

(*e*) *Elacatinus oceanops*.—This slender fish, 1.5 to 4 inches long, is found on the surfaces of the massive coral (*Orbicella*), close pressed to the living polyps. I have found it fully exposed, not "endeavoring to shelter itself in bottom of grooves," as stated by Jordan and Thompson (1905). In this position, where it is conspicuous by reason of its strongly contrasted stripes, it is shown in plate 4, fig. 8. When dislodged it takes a zigzag course to a new resting-place, as described by Jordan (1904). With the greatest difficulty it may be captured from the coral with a hand net.

Two individuals were thrown from the dock to the snappers. The first was pursued, but went at once toward a spile beneath the dock. It was lost to view, but later found clinging to the spile. A second individual thrown in further from the dock was at once snapped up. Here, as in the case of *Abudefduf*, coloration appears to be no protection, but erratic movement aids escape, and nearness to a large, hard surface affords protection, more effective, perhaps, in the case of *Elacatinus*, because of the nettle-cells of the coral polyp to which the fish clings.

The case of *Leptechineis naucrates* is of interest in connection with that

of *Abudefduf*. Its broad contrasting stripes render it conspicuous. When in its natural position, attached to the body of a shark by the sucker on the top of its head, it is not molested by the snappers. An individual 6 inches long was thrown from the dock and at once taken by the snappers. Its coloration gave it no protection. Just as the snappers treat *Abudefduf* and *Elacatinus* as accessible when not close to a massive coral or large hard surface, so they treat *Leptechineis* as accessible when detached from its host.

The wholly unfamiliar bright red salamander *Diemyctylus viridescens*[1] was taken with no trace of hesitation, and thus is illustrated again the failure of a warning color to afford protection.

The results of the feeding experiments may be briefly summarized as follows:

Gray snappers attempted to capture all the 22 species of fish and 1 amphibian thrown to them. They actually took all the species but one (Chætodon ocellatus), which escaped on account of its large size and defensive armor. No hesitation was shown in seizing any of the fish offered, except in the case of the larger individuals of Chylomycterus schœpfi, which are formidable by reason of their erratic movements, power of inflation, and defensive spines, and are probably new to most of the snappers. The species taken were of a variety of colors and color patterns and were nearly all conspicuous. They included the colors and patterns considered as typically warning. In Angelichthys, Chætodon, Chylomycterus, Hepatus, and Pomacanthus conspicuousness is combined with unpleasant attributes in the form of defensive spines, the typical warning combination, yet these fish were all instantly taken.

Individuals of certain species escaped from the pursuing snappers, (a) because of inconspicuousness combined with speed (Caranx crysos); (b) because of erratic movement combined with power of inflation, size, and defensive spines (Chylomycterus schœpfi); (c) because of erratic flight to a near object with large, hard surfaces, against which a small agile fish is practically inaccessible (Abudefduf marginatus, Elacatinus oceanops). The escape of these individuals was therefore not due to their conspicuous coloration, but was rather in spite of it.

IX. THE RAPIDITY AND NICETY OF THE ADJUSTMENT OF THE GRAY SNAPPER TO ITS FOOD.

In this section there are brought together a few instances of behavior adjustment which appear to bear on the theory of warning coloration.

On July 14, 1905, there were fed to the laboratory colony of gray snappers 151 atherinas, the last 28 of which were blue. Immediately afterward there were offered 3 blue atherina-shaped pieces of the arms of the medusa *Cassiopea xamachana*. These pieces induced no reaction whatever in the snappers, although they greatly resembled a blue atherina which was thrown immediately before them and at once taken. When it was clear that the fish would not take the blue cassiopea pieces, they were offered a composite of

[1] I am indebted for this specimen to Mr. Davenport Hooker.

atherina and cassiopea, made by shaping the cassiopea to the form of an atherina body and sewing to this the head and tail of an atherina. The whole was blue and at a little distance hardly to be distinguished from an atherina. It was at once taken.

The next day (July 15) after a previous feeding of but 18 uncolored atherinas, 2 pieces of the rim of cassiopea were stained blue and thrown to the snappers after a single blue atherina. The pieces of cassiopea were about 1 inch wide and 3 inches long. One continued to pulsate; the other did not. Both were at once taken.

Experiment 34: Shortly afterward pieces of the arms of cassiopea were trimmed as near as possible to the size and form of atherina. They were

TABLE 14.—*Behavior of the laboratory colony of gray snappers toward blue and red atherinas and toward blue and red atherina-shaped cassiopea arms, when offered, in alternation after normal atherinas.*

[*na*=normal atherina; *ba*=blue atherina; *ra*=red atherina; *bc*=blue cassiopea; *rc*=red cassiopea.]

July 15, 1905.	Serial No.	Object offered.	Taken.	Taken and rejected.	Refused.	July 16, 1905.	Serial No.	Object offered.	Taken.	Taken and rejected.	Refused.
Beginning 12 m.	1	*na*	×			Beginning 11 a. m.	1	*na*	×		
	2	*na*	×				2	*na*	×		
	3	*na*	×				3	*na*	×		
	4	*ba*	×				4	*ba*	×		
	5	*bc*		×			5	*bc*			×
	6	*ba*	×				6	*ba*	×		
	7	*bc*		×			7	*bc*			×
	8	*ba*	×				8	*ba*	×		
	9	*bc*		×			9	*bc*		×	
	10	*ba*	×				10	*ba*	×		
	11	*bc*			×		11	*bc*			×
	12	*ba*	×				12	*ba*	×		
	13	*bc*		×			13	*bc*			×
	14	*ba*	×				14	*ba*	×		
	15	*bc*			×		15	*bc*			×
	16	*ba*	×				16	*ba*	×		
	17	*bc*			×		17	*bc*			×
Per cent, cassiopea.				57	43		18	*ba*	×		
							19	*bc*			×
Beginning 1h30m p. m.	1	*na*	×			Beginning 11h45m a. m.	1	*na*	×		
	2	*na*	×				2	*na*	×		
	3	*na*	×				3	*na*	×		
	4	*ba*	×				4	*ba*	×		
	5	*bc*			×		5	*bc*			×
	6	*ba*	×				6	*ba*	×		
	7	*bc*			×		7	*bc*			×
	8	*ba*	×				8	*ba*	×		
	9	*bc*			×		9	*bc*			×
	10	*ba*	×				10	*ba*	×		
	11	*bc*		×			11	*bc*			×
	12	*ba*	×				12	*ra*	×		
	13	*bc*			×		13	*rc*			×
	14	*ba*	×				14	*ra*	×		
	15	*bc*			×		15	*rc*			×
	16	*ba*	×				16	*ra*	×		
	17	*bc*			×		17	*rc*			×
	18	*ba*	×				18	*ra*	×		
	19	*bc*			×		19	*rc*			×
Per cent, cassiopea.				12.5	87.5	Per cent, cassiopea.				6.25	93.25

smooth, jelly-like masses without tentacles or other projections, and on one surface of each the epithelium with its nettle-cells remained intact. These pieces were stained blue and thrown to the Laboratory colony of gray snappers alternately with blue atherinas, in the manner shown in table 14 at the left.

After 3 normal atherinas, 7 blue atherinas and 7 cassiopea pieces were thus thrown at noon. The atherinas were all taken at once; 4 of the cassiopea pieces were taken but rejected, while 3 remained untaken. These 3 sank among the snappers and remained on the bottom. At 1^h 30^m p. m. 8 more blue cassiopea pieces were thrown, alternately with blue atherinas and following 3 normal atherinas. The atherinas were again all taken, while 7 of the 8 cassiopea pieces were refused and 1 was taken and then rejected. On the following day (July 16) at 11 a. m. blue cassiopea and blue atherinas were again offered, 8 of each, and with the result that but 1 cassiopea piece was taken and this was afterward rejected (table 14, at right). At times the snappers showed no reaction toward a cassiopea piece. At other times they swam slowly toward the piece as though to take it, but stopped when within a varying distance, never less than 6 or 8 inches, and then turned away. Usually the movement toward the piece was but 2 or 3 inches; often there was no forward movement. The atherinas, on the other hand, were seized with a rush and unerringly at the first rush. The attempt was repeated forty-five minutes later (at 11^h 45^m a. m.), but with this difference: that after 4 blue atherinas and 4 blue cassiopea pieces had been thrown, the remaining 4 of each thrown were red (table 14, right, below). Both blue and red atherinas were at once taken, but all the cassiopea pieces were refused. Although none of the cassiopea pieces were taken the snappers rushed at the first piece thrown and nearly seized it. They behaved in the same way toward the second and third pieces, but with each succeeding piece their interest lessened, until they paid little attention to the last two or three. In this experiment the atherinas and cassiopea pieces were handled and thrown by different individuals so that there was no transfer of the odor or taste of one to the other.

During the 3 days this colony, consisting at this time of about 100 snappers, actually swallowed 2 pieces of cassiopea and 2 of cassiopea combined with atherina, while they took into the mouth and rejected 6 other cassiopea pieces. In addition to this they examined, without touching, many of the other pieces of cassiopea. As the result of this brief experience the last 13 cassiopea pieces remained untaken, while the percentage taken and rejected declined from 57 at the beginning through 12.5 to 6.25, as shown in table 14. The colony thus adjusted itself with great rapidity to a new possible-food element, of unfamiliar color and form, but with the familiar unpalatable qualities of the medusa.[1] In doing this the individual snappers showed con-

[1] That in this adjustment some of the snappers profited by the experience of others is likely. We have here probably a form of imitation—a following instinct—but the data at hand do not warrant a critical discussion of the subject.

siderable power of discrimination. The atherinas and cassiopea pieces were much alike. They were identical in color, but differed in details of form and in translucence, as well as in palatability. In spite of their likeness the snappers discriminated accurately between them. That this discrimination was based on form or translucence rather than on color appears from the fact that the snappers were not deceived when red cassiopea was substituted for blue, and from the further fact that they took at once the combined atherina-cassiopea. It is clear that no conspicuous difference, no warning coloration, was necessary to enable the snappers to rapidly differentiate the two sorts of objects.

Experiment 35.—On July 23 two small aquarium jars of uncolored atherinas preserved in formalin were fed to the laboratory colony of snappers. No record was kept of the number fed, but it was estimated to be between 200 and 300—or 2 atherinas to each of the 150 snappers. The atherinas were taken from the 2 per cent formalin, rinsed in sea-water, and thrown at once, while still saturated with the formalin. They were all taken, but very slowly toward the end. Soon snappers were frequently seen swimming about with heads of atherinas projecting from their mouths; 15 minutes later many (probably 50 or 100) atherinas that had been disgorged by the snappers could be seen on the bottom under the dock.

On July 24 blue formalin atherinas were offered to this colony. They were taken very slowly, and after 30 or 40 had been taken, they were refused. Many were then disgorged. In the midst of this feeding of blue atherinas some perfectly fresh uncolored individuals were offered. Some of these still had enough life to wriggle feebly. These were cautiously approached by the snappers, which often jerked back from them, but finally took them. The living fish, while still wriggling, were thus treated by the snappers in a manner wholly unlike that usual to them when fed on fresh atherinas. It was clear that the snappers had retained since the day before an association between the atherinas colored or uncolored and the disagreeable qualities of formalin.

Atherinas are inconspicuous when seen against the surface film or the sand bottom, as the snappers see them. They may be regarded as protectively colored. If all the atherinas about the island were suddenly to become highly unpalatable, I do not doubt that the snappers would learn after a brief experience to let them alone. I do not doubt that they would be effectively protected by unpalatability alone, without the addition to it of a warning coloration—so rapid and so nice is the power of discrimination in the gray snapper. This ability of the snapper to discriminate with nicety has led to its adjustment to all the food elements of its environment. Fragments of a large coral polyp which I threw to them were taken, but at once rejected. Pieces of the arm of a brittle-star were examined and left untouched. Both were inconspicuous. A palinurus, 3 inches long, was at

once taken. It also is inconspicuous. Medusæ and Ctenophores of various sorts, usually inconspicuous, are not eaten.

We may say by way of summary that the gray snapper discriminates with great rapidity and delicacy between the various possible-food elements of its environment, which are not conspicuously different from each other.

X. GENERAL DISCUSSION OF CONSPICUOUSNESS IN ANIMALS.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF CONSPICUOUS COLORATION IN CORAL-REEF FISHES.

If the foregoing account is correct the gray snappers, the commonest predaceous fish of the coral reefs, possess all the qualities required by the theory of warning coloration. They distinguish colors, form associations with great readiness, and retain these associations for a considerable time. Presumably other predaceous fish of the region do the like. By these qualities the snappers adjust themselves continually to their environment. Their capacity for behavior adjustment is indeed so great that a familiar disagreeable quality added to their wonted food is enough to render that food immune from their attacks, and this happens after approximately a single experience of taking the food into the mouth (experiment 32, p. 285). An adjustment even more rapid takes place toward food of unfamiliar appearance, but with well-known unpalatable qualities (atherina-shaped colored cassiopea pieces, experiment 34, p. 305). Their capacity for adjustment is such that the snappers have learned all the food possibilities of the environment—what is good for them to eat and what is not. They refuse at sight jelly-fish and brittle-stars, and in spite of the fact that these forms are very inconspicuous, they distinguish them as not good to eat. A warning coloration is quite unnecessary for the protection of these unpalatable forms There can be no doubt that if any animal in the environment of the snappers, whether conspicuous or inconspicuous, should develop highly disagreeable qualities, it would, after a brief experience, be unmolested by them.

When, under quite normal conditions, the gray snappers were given an opportunity to feed on conspicuously colored coral-reef fishes of suitable size they took without hesitation all the species offered them. Most of these 22 species are highly conspicuous fish; several have both conspicuousness and formidable means of defense. That they are greedily taken by the gray snappers and that the fish themselves make every effort to escape are facts which seem to admit of no other interpretation than that their conspicuousness has no warning significance. We must, then, seek some other meaning of the conspicuousness of these fish. Reasons have been already given (p. 263) for the belief that we are not dealing here with sexual selection.

That the conspicuous coral-reef fish are not instances of aggressive resemblance either general or special is evidenced by their conspicuousness, as shown in the photographs (plates 1 to 5, except plate 4, fig. 9). That an aggressive resemblance (enabling them to approach their prey) is unneces-

sary is due to the nature of their food, which consists, so far as is known, of invertebrates, most of them fixed. This is seen from their mode of feeding by browsing from the surface of the coral rock or from living corals. It is further shown by the tooth structure of many of the forms, a structure adapted for nibbling from hard surfaces and for crushing hard, fixed forms

TABLE 15.—*Stomach contents, so far as recorded, of species of coral-reef fishes known to occur at the Tortugas, Florida.*[1]

Species examined.	No. of fish examined.	Stomach contents.		From notes by writer and Dr. Linton, 1907.
		From Linton, 1907.	From Linton, 1907a.	
Abudefduf marginatus (=saxatilis).	10	.....	Vegetable débris.	
Angelichthys (Holocanthus) ciliaris	11	.....	Alimentary canal filled with a red sponge, a few annelids, bryozoa, a small mollusk shell, and seaweed.	
Angelichthys (Holocanthus) isabelita.	1	Alimentary canal filled with gorgonia, sponges, etc.		
Balistes carolinensis	4	.....	Alimentary canal crowded with broken mussel shells, setæ of large annelid.	
Balistes vetula	1	.....	Fragments of adductor muscle of a bivalve mollusk.	
Chætodipterus faber	1	Very long intestine filled with material browsed from the reef, mainly gorgonia and sponges.		
Chætodon ocellatus	2	.....	Algæ.	
Hæmulon flavolineatum.	16	.....	Crustaceans, annelids, green algæ and broken shells	
Hæmulon macrostomum.	(?)	(2) Annelids	Annelids and ophiurians.	
Hæmulon sciurus...	35	.....	Crustacea and annelids.	
Hepatus (Teuthis) cœruleus.	4	.....	Broken shells, mainly serpula tubes and small gasteropods, bryozoa, sponge, foraminifera, seaweed and sand.	
Hepatus (Teuthis) hepatus.	5	.....	Ascidian (Botrylloides), algæ, and sand	
Holocentrus ascensionis.	4	.....	Small crustaceans.	
Iridio bivittatus.....	5	.....	Shells and byssus of mussel, annelid, spine of sea urchin.	
Ocyurus chrysurus (Bloch).	1	.....	.....	1 goose barnacle, 1 isopod, many annelid spines, Ostracoda, bivalve mollusks.
Pomacanthus arcuatus.	2	.....	.....	Compound ascidians, red fibrous sponge, fragments gray calcareous sponge, green pycnogonid, red algæ, conical bryozoan colonies.
Pomacentrus fuscus	.....	.....	Small crustaceans, bryozoa, foraminifera, algæ, sand.	
Scarus (Callyodon) vetula.	4	.....	Stomach and intestine filled with crabs, univalve shells, sea-urchin spines, seaweed, and sand	
Total	108			

[1] Additional notes on stomach contents of fish from Beaufort, North Carolina, of a few species occurring at Tortugas (*Kyphosus sectatrix, Monocanthus hispidus, Chylomycterus schœpfi, Chætodipterus faber*) are to be found in Linton (1905). They are confirmatory of those given in this table, but are not included because, although a reef occurs there, the region is not a typical coral-reef region.

rather than for holding active prey. The only records of examinations of stomach contents known to the writer are embodied in table 15. This includes 18 species represented by at least 108 individuals and shows the food to include the following fixed or very slow-moving forms: Algæ, ascidians, bryozoa, sea-urchins, gorgonians, mollusks, sponges. The annelids are in one case sedentary or tube-inhabiting forms and are possibly so in all cases. Of active forms, crustacea are mentioned but four times and ophiurians once; both may have been taken after death. The sand is probably adventitious and the foraminifera may have been included in it. The conclusion seems to be warranted that the food of these coral-reef fishes consists of invertebrates, the bulk of it of fixed forms. There appears to be no evidence that any of these aquatic invertebrates discriminate colors (Washburn, 1908, Chapter VII). Aggressive color-resemblance can then afford no advantage to fish approaching such prey and selection could not have operated through the food to hold in check the development of their brilliant colors.

Protective resemblance seems to have been equally unnecessary for the conspicuous coral-reef fishes. Protected by their agility and their nearness to the coral-rock labyrinths, they readily elude their enemies. The method of escape and subsequent behavior of small *Abudefduf marginatus* and of *Elacatinus* related on p. 302 show that these fish are immune from attack when near a large flat surface, whether that surface is or is not clothed with coral polyps. That the conspicuous coral-reef fishes are pursued and captured by the gray snapper when they venture away from the reefs is shown by the feeding experiments already described. One of the fish thus instantly devoured by the snappers was a young *Anisotremus virginicus*, or porkfish, yet I have twice seen this conspicuous fish emerge from crevices in the coral rock and go to a distance of 6 to 8 inches to nibble at the surface of a gray snapper. It avoided the head of the snapper and appeared to be seeking food in the region of the anal opening. Instead of attempting to seize it the snapper lowered the dorsal, wriggled as though annoyed, and then swam away. The instance illustrates the immunity enjoyed by such fish when on the reefs and the recognition by the snapper of their inaccessibility under these circumstances. The gray snappers were never seen to attempt to pursue the conspicuous fish into the recesses of the coral reefs. In the gloom prevailing there the colors of the fish would be indistinguishable and could not then, even should we assume them to be associated with disagreeable qualities, serve to warn their foes. Protective resemblance is unnecessary for such fishes. For them coloration has no selective value. Even were they protectively colored the sharp sight and fine power of discrimination of the snappers would probably enable them to capture the fish at a distance from the reefs, but it is only when they reach a size which renders them immune from attack that they venture to a distance.

Since these fishes, if removed from the reefs, would, on account of their

conspicuousness, be quickly exterminated, it may be objected that their colors are in fact warning colors, that the reefs with their nettling corals furnish the disagreeable qualities which protect the fish and which correspond to the unpleasant attributes of warningly-colored insects. It may be urged that, just as insectivorous foes, after attacking warningly-colored insects and experiencing their unpleasant qualities, afterward let them alone, so piscivorous fish, after being bumped or stung in their efforts to capture coral-reef fish, subsequently refrain from such efforts. Coral-reef fish, removed from the reefs, are stripped of their disagreeable attributes and are at once attacked. In like manner warningly-colored insects, if deprived of their unpleasant attributes, would doubtless be soon attacked and exterminated. Thus, it may be said, the two cases are quite parallel and the conspicuousness of the coral-reef fish is as much an instance of warning coloration as that of warningly-colored insects, with the difference that the association formed by their enemies is in the case of insects with an unpleasant attribute inherent in the insect, and in the case of coral-reef fish with a similar attribute belonging to their environment. There is a measure of truth in this contention, for no doubt the sight of the reefs "warns" predaceous fish of the futility of pursuing prey into them, and no doubt also the coloration of certain insects may "warn" their foes of their unpalatability. That the coloration of unpalatable insects is unnecessary as a warning and that it has therefore not developed under the action of selection are propositions which are discussed elsewhere in this paper. The evidence that the conspicuousness of coral-reef fish does not warn the gray snapper has been already presented, so that it need be here only added that in any pursuit by enemies, whether outside the reefs or within them, the conspicuousness of these fish is a disadvantage to them. Their capture by the gray snapper can serve only to strengthen in him a mode of behavior which would be correlated in human consciousness with the proposition—"that gaudy morsel is good to eat." A gaudiness which serves to advertise palatability is surely in this case disadvantageous. It could not, therefore, have developed through selection, which, had it acted on these fishes with sufficient intensity, should rather have brought about protective coloration. That this result has not been reached may be due in part to the lack of intensity in the selective process, since selection is held in abeyance by the reefs, but more probably results from the inability of the fishes to vary in the necessary direction.

If the conspicuousness of the coral-reef fish is not necessary in its courtship, and does not serve to warn enemies of unpleasant attributes, and does not aid its possessor in eluding enemies or approaching prey, it can, so far as I can see, and whatever be the physiological uses of the chemical substances involved, have no biological meaning. It has arisen not through selection of any sort, but because the conditions of life permit a suspension of

selection so far as concerns the color characters of the fish. Selection has neither produced nor perfected the color characters; they have, on the contrary, arisen in the absence of selection and may be regarded as expressions of the individuality of the species unhampered by selection—as expressions of the action of internal factors, possibly orthogenetic.

In the reef environment the chemical composition, temperature, and illumination of the water show a high degree of uniformity both seasonal and regional (Hickson, quoted by Packard, 1902). In this environment many of the fishes that live habitually in the reefs are highly conspicuous on account of their coloration or other characters, while other fishes that live habitually about the reefs but not in them are inconspicuous. Conspicuous coloration can not, then, be attributed to the influence of light, temperature, or chemical composition of the water, which are the same in the reefs and about them (Hickson). Possibly the food of the reef fishes or unknown external factors tend to stimulate in them the development of a brilliant coloration, and this might be experimentally tested. That the environmental factors peculiar to the reefs do not necessarily produce such coloration is shown by *Kyphosus sectatrix*, a reef-fish in the stomach of which Linton (1905) found crabs, lamellibranchs, and vegetable débris. This fish is dull-colored and inconspicuous, yet is found with the conspicuous fish and has like food. But even should it be shown that the reef environment includes factors which tend to produce brilliant colors the many color-patterns characteristic of species would remain unexplained; for the number of color-patterns among coral-reef fish is very great, while the environment is one of great uniformity and the food of the species is little varied.[1] The characteristic colors and patterns I can regard only as due to internal factors, unchecked by the selection which renders them impossible in the immediate neighborhood of the reefs. The reef fauna may include fish conspicuous or not, according to their nature; the water immediately about the reefs can harbor only relatively inconspicuous fish. Nor does it seem to me possible that reef fish could have developed conspicuousness outside the reefs and then sought their shelter (Davenport, 1903, segregation in the fittest environment), for conspicuousness at a distance from the reef shelter would be fatal. On the other hand, inconspicuous fish may have appeared in the reefs and then made their way out from them. *Coral-reef fishes are not conspicuous because they are in the reefs; they are in the reefs because they are conspicuous and can not therefore leave the reefs, and because, being in the reefs and taking the food as they do, there is no reason for their being inconspicuous. The reefs condition their conspicuousness; they are in no sense its cause.*

[1] The conditions resemble those found by Gulick (1905) in the Hawaiian Achatinellidæ, but as my own observations are insufficient to warrant the discussion of *divergent* evolution, I do not here consider Gulick's work.

coloration that they are often implied rather than explicitly stated by writers on the subject. I therefore quote the following detailed statement by Wallace (1891, pp. 242–243) (the italicizing is mine):

> But when they (the Heliconidæ) first arose from some ancestral species or group which, owing to the food of the larva or some other cause, possessed disagreeable juices that caused them to be disliked by the usual enemies of their kind, they were in all probability not very different either in form or coloration from many other butterflies. They would at that time be subject to repeated attacks by insect eaters, and, even if finally rejected, would often receive a fatal injury. Hence arose the necessity of some distinguishing mark, by which the devourers of butterflies in general might learn that these particular butterflies were uneatable; and every variation leading to such distinction, whether by form, color, or mode of flight, was *preserved and accumulated by natural selection*, till the ancestral Heliconidæ became well distinguished from eatable butterflies, and thenceforth comparatively free from persecution.

CRITICISM OF THE THEORY OF WARNING COLORATION.

(*a*) *With reference to tenet II* (*a*) *above.*—Since palatable forms can not be conspicuous and at the same time accessible to their vertebrate foes, it follows that unpalatability must (assuming it to have appeared after insectivorous vertebrates) have arisen among inconspicuous insects and these inconspicuous forms must subsequently have become conspicuous. This accords with the statement of Poulton (1890, p. 176): "it must be remembered that an unpleasant attribute must always appear in advance of the warning color" and also with the existence at the present time of unpalatable insects that are protectively colored (*Mana typica*, Beddard, 1892; *Manestra persicariae*, Beddard, 1892, and many others). That there is no necessary physiological relation between the unpleasant properties of the body juices and conspicuous coloration is shown by the existence of these alleged unpleasant juices in protectively-colored forms, and their absence in certain conspicuous forms. Thus Wallace (1891, p. 254) says: "The eatable butterflies comprise not only brown or white species, but hundreds of Nymphalidæ, Papilionidæ, Lycænidæ, etc., which are gaily colored and of an immense variety of patterns." (See also the table of Beddard, 1892, pp. 164–165.) It is further shown by the coexistence of conspicuous coloration with disagreeable attributes other than unpleasant juices (stings, pricking hairs, Poulton, 1891). The manner in which warning colors are held to have been developed in unpalatable insects is indicated by the above quotation from Wallace.

This mode of origin implies the possession by insectivorous vertebrates of a considerable nicety of discrimination, concerning the existence of which we do not appear to have experimental evidence. But the facts of mimicry seem to afford indirect evidence of well-developed powers of discrimination in insectivorous vertebrates. We have no other explanation of mimicry among Lepidoptera than that afforded by the theory of natural selection, and a careful examination of the evidence on which the theory of mimicry

rests leaves one impressed with its soundness. The resemblance between mimicked and mimicker have been characterized by Bates as at times "perfectly staggering." Wallace states (1891, p. 245) that "in almost every box of butterflies brought from tropical America by amateurs are to be found some species of the mimicking Pieridæ, Erycinidæ, or moths, and the mimicked Heliconidæ, placed together under the impression that they are the same species. Yet more extraordinary, it sometimes deceives the very insects themselves." The differences between mimicked and mimickers may afford us a measure then of the power of discrimination of insectivorous vertebrates, for according to the theory those mimics which differed noticeably from their models have been continually destroyed by their vertebrate foes until the survivors have come to be so like their models that they can no longer be distinguished from them. Any greater differences must attract the attention of these foes. Insectivorous vertebrates thus show a power of discrimination exceeding that of many amateur collectors.

That the gray snapper possesses some such power of discrimination may be inferred from the experiments already described. Bateson says that the wrasse "finds a shrimp if the least bit exposed, in spite of its protective coloration" (Poulton, 1890, p. 204). If this power be conceded to fishes, insectivorous reptiles, birds, and mammals may well possess at least equal nicety of discrimination. Recognition marks, if they are recognition marks, afford another instance of discriminative power among vertebrates, while protective and aggressive resemblance are quite generally accepted as having arisen through selection which has depended on the powers of discrimination of vertebrate foes.

The theory of warning colors requires us, on the other hand, to assume that these same insectivorous vertebrates possess so little power of discrimination that unpalatable insects need to be marked in conspicuous patterns of contrasting colors. May we not with more reason assert that, if insectivorous vertebrates have pushed the resemblance between mimickers and their models to the point of apparent identity, warning colors are for them quite unnecessary? The ordinary specific differences should suffice to "warn" them of the unpalatability of prospective and familiar insect prey. If this be true warning coloration has no more title to be so called than have other distinctive characters of insects. That it actually serves to "warn" insectivorous vertebrates can not be doubted, but that it is necessary to that end may be seriously questioned.

With reference to tenet II (b) above.—If insectivorous vertebrates possess the nicety of discrimination required by the theories of mimicry and protective resemblance, then it is difficult to see how selection can have produced warning coloration. Selection can no more account for incipient warning coloration than it can account for other incipient characters, for like other characters, warning coloration must have developed to the point

of utility before selection can have operated on it. As a condition antecedent to selection, incipient warning coloration must have reached a point at which insectivorous vertebrates could distinguish warningly-colored insects from those which did not possess that character. It is conceivable that selection then operated to intensify warning coloration, but can we believe that it carried it to its present stage—far beyond the point at which discrimination must have been easy? Should it not rather have stopped so soon as warningly-colored insects were readily discriminated, long before the present very conspicuous differences had appeared? Are we to believe that when an insectivorous vertebrate encounters together two color varieties of a familiar, unpalatable species which differ slightly in conspicuousness, it will take the less conspicuous and leave the other? Does it seem still further possible that this result will follow if the two varieties are encountered in succession? Should the varieties differ from one another in conspicuousness to the extent of mutations, can one believe that a vertebrate foe with experience of the equal unpalatability of both would take the one and leave the other? Yet this must have been the case if warning colors were perfected by selection. Is it not more probable that if any discrimination occurs, the vertebrate foe would attack the more conspicuous insect because it is less familiar and that his attacks would thus tend to retard the development of conspicuousness rather than to accelerate it?

If warning coloration may be initiated in insects without the aid of selection, as indeed it must be, and if the later stages in its development may not be satisfactorily accounted for by selection, then we need not invoke its aid at all. The entire development of warning coloration may well have been due to the action of the same forces that initiated it. That these forces may be orthogenetic is obvious, but my own work does not seem to afford a sufficient basis for the discussion of this subject. Mayer (1902) has concluded that in butterflies of the genera *Papilio* and *Ornithoptera* and in Hesperidæ the color-patterns have been mainly determined by internal factors (race tendency), not by external influences or natural selection.

A SUBSTITUTE FOR THE THEORY OF WARNING COLORATION.

If the views already expressed concerning the development of conspicuousness in coral-reef fishes are well founded, this character has resulted from the action of internal forces in the absence of counteracting selection. Selection in the direction of protective resemblance has been held in abeyance by the coral-reef habitat which has effectually limited the attacks of predaceous fish. Selection in the direction of aggressive resemblance has not taken place owing to the nature of the food. As a result coloration has developed unhampered by selection and this development has resulted in definite colors and patterns, constant and characteristic of each species. Among these are the colors and patterns typical of warningly-colored insects.

What has happened with coral-reef fish may well have happened with insects. With them also, with few exceptions, the nature of the food precludes selection in the direction of aggressive resemblance. The development of unpalatability bars in large measure the attacks of vertebrate foes and holds in check selection in the direction of protective resemblance. As a result unpalatable insects have, probably with few exceptions, been free to develop color characters, each according to its kind. This development has, in most cases, resulted in conspicuousness, and to this conspicuousness the term "warning coloration" has been applied.

For the term warning coloration it would, it seems to me, be better to substitute the term *immunity coloration.* If the foregoing account is well founded the so-called warning coloration of insects has not been developed by selection, as hitherto believed, and it is not necessary to insure discrimination by insectivorous vertebrates. The term, moreover, covers only certain classes of conspicuousness, while the term "immunity coloration" covers all cases of conspicuousness not attributable to selection. Immunity coloration includes on the one hand the conspicuous color characters of coral-reef fish where it has as its conditioning feature *inaccessibility;* it includes also the conspicuous color-characters of those insects which are, for one reason or another, unsuitable as food for vertebrate foes, and here it has as its conditioning feature *unpalatability* (whether due to stings, pricking hairs, disagreeable juices from the body cavity or glands, hard outer covering, etc.). It probably includes cases of so-called warning coloration among invertebrates other than insects (*e. g.*, Cœlenterata, nettling nudibranchs; see Hargitt, 1904) as well as among vertebrates. That immunity coloration may exist without the screen of unpalatability is shown by the following instances:

(*a*) According to Poulton (1887):

> Wallace has shown that the shape and colors due to sexual selection run riot in localities (certain islands) where enemies are largely excluded by barriers, and in the same way the brilliant colors of nauseous or dangerous insects may perhaps be explained by equal immunity, although due to other causes.

The work of Mayer (1900) throws serious doubt on the inference that colors such as those that have here run riot are sexual colors in the sense that they have a sexual function, and the whole condition is probably the result of immunity. According to Packard (1904) butterflies are not commonly eaten by birds. Their conspicuousness may therefore be wholly due to immunity.

(*b*) Marshall and Poulton (1902) make the following statement and illustrate it by instances:

> Swift-flying butterflies are not likely to be caught by birds. The latter learn the futility of pursuit. The butterflies have therefore been able to acquire brilliant colors above, particularly those species having protectively-colored undersides.

(*c*) Saville-Kent (1893) describes three species of a huge anemone of the genus *Discosoma,* which occur on the barrier reef of Australia. One of these species "not infrequently measures as much as 2 feet in diameter." In the gastral cavity of each species of these anemones is commonly found a small fish of the genus *Amphiprion.* The three species of *Amphiprion* are all most conspicuously banded with orange-vermilion and white, but they differ in the number of white bands and in the fact that one of them, *A. percula,* has the white and vermilion bands everywhere separated by narrower black bars. Saville-Kent suggests that—

> The brilliant colors of the commensal guests attract the notice of other predatory fish, which, hastening to seize an apparently easy prey, are themselves entrapped within the outspread tentacles of the passively expectant sea-anemones.

(*d*) Belt (1874, pp. 196-197) says:

> Three gaudy macaws were wheeling round and round in playful flight, now showing all the red on the under surface, then turning all together, as if they were one body, and showing the gorgeous blue, yellow and red of the upper side gleaming in the sunshine; screaming meanwhile as they flew with harsh, discordant cries. This gaudy-colored and noisy bird seems to proclaim aloud that it fears no foe. Its formidable beak protects it from every danger, for no hawk or predatory mammal dares attack a bird so strongly armed. Here the necessity for concealment does not exist, and sexual selection has had no check in developing the brightest and most conspicuous colors. If such a bird was not able to defend itself from all foes, its loud cries would attract them; its bright colors direct them to its own destruction. The white cockatoo of Australia is a similar instance. It is equally conspicuous amongst the dark-green foliage by its pure white color, and equally its loud screams proclaim from afar its resting-place, whilst its powerful beak protects it from all enemies excepting man. In the smaller species of parrots the beak is not sufficiently strong to protect them from their enemies, and most of them are colored green, which makes them very difficult to distinguish amongst the leaves. I have been looking for several minutes at a tree, in which were scores of small green parrots, making an incessant noise, without being able to distinguish one; and I recollect once in Australia firing at what I thought was a solitary "green leek" parrot amongst a bunch of leaves, and to my astonishment five "green leeks" fell to the ground, the whole bunch of apparent leaves having been composed of them.

Newton (1893–1896) says of the macaw, of which there are about a score of species: "Their food . . . consists of various kinds of fruit . . . The sexes appear in all cases to be alike in colouring." We can, then, hardly attribute their colors to sexual selection. The food precludes aggressive resemblance. Belt's account makes it clear that we are not dealing with protective resemblance. Leunis (1883) says of the Psittaci: "Das Fleisch vieler arten gilt für zart und wohl-schmeckend," so that warning coloration on this score seems to be also precluded.

(*e*) Brown (1903, page 297, footnote), writing of the garter snakes of the moist region from latitude 40° in northern California to British Columbia, says:

The liberty to indulge in the striking colors developed in the garter snakes of this region is partly due to the protection afforded by abundant vegetation, and perhaps in some degree to the absence of the three snake-eating genera, *Spilotes, Ophibolus,* and *Elaps.*

All these classes of cases may be brought under the head of immunity coloration and may be attributed to inaccessibility. There are doubtless many other similar cases to be found in the literature and many cases of conspicuousness in insects now attributed to unpalatability may be due to other conditions. That other circumstances than unpalatability and inaccessibility may condition immunity coloration is probable.

Immunity coloration may now be defined as "*coloration, not sexually dimorphic, which renders an organism in its natural environment conspicuous to vertebrates; which has no selective value, since it does not aid the organism in escaping vertebrate enemies by concealment* (*protective coloration*), *nor in approaching its accustomed invertebrate prey* (*aggressive coloration*), *and when associated with disagreeable qualities is unnecessary as a warning to vertebrate foes of the existence of such qualities* (*warning coloration*); *it is conceived to have arisen through internal forces under immunity of the organism from the action of selection on its color characters.*" The exclusion of all sexually dimorphic coloration from the definition is provisional.

The obvious relation usually observable between completed animal characters and their function or utility is reflected in the curious anthropomorphic feature of those modern theories of evolution that are founded on a relation between the evolution of these structures and utility. This viewpoint finds interesting expression in theories of animal coloration. Sexual coloration, warning coloration, and possibly recognition marks may have obvious, though perhaps not necessary, uses; their evolution is therefore assumed to have taken place in relation to these uses. The utmost ingenuity has been exercised to discover plausible utility in every fleck of color with the conviction that thereby *evidence* was being accumulated as to a mode of evolution. The theory of orthogenesis alone is free from this limitation, since it holds that characters may arise and be without utility or their utility be determined afterward. The present paper holds that immunity coloration has developed in no relation to utility, but it does not discuss the method of that development. The view is presented as a working hypothesis which it is hoped soon to further test.

An attempt is made to apply this conclusion to the "warning coloration" of conspicuous insects. Evidence is collated to show that vertebrate foes are able to discriminate between palatable and unpalatable insects without the aid of a distinguishing conspicuousness. If such power of discrimination exists, then since unpalatability must have preceded conspicuousness in insects, this conspicuousness can not have been initiated by selection. If it began without the aid of selection it may well have continued to develop without it. The conspicuousness of warningly colored insects is then attributed to the avoidance of them by vertebrate foes at a time when they were still relatively inconspicuous. This avoidance rendered protective inconspicuousness unnecessary to them, while the nature of their food rendered aggressive inconspicuousness unnecessary. Their unpleasant attributes have protected them from their enemies, as the reefs have protected the coral-reef fish. Under this immunity from selection they have been free to develop conspicuousness, which is therefore regarded as an expression of race tendency, of internal forces, in the absence of selection.

The theory of *immunity coloration* is proposed as a substitute for the theory of warning coloration and it is shown that it covers certain cases not covered by the theory of warning coloration. Immunity coloration is defined on page 316.

XI. SUMMARY.

This paper embodies a search for the biological significance of the conspicuousness which it attempts to show characterizes many of the coral-reef fish of the Tortugas region. After showing that this conspicuousness is not a secondary sexual character and that it serves neither for protective or aggressive resemblance its value as a warning character is subjected to experimental test.

Experimental evidence is presented to show that the gray snapper, the commonest predaceous fish of the region, discriminates certain colors, forms associations with great rapidity, and retains these associations for a considerable time (memory). If any of the coral-reef fishes possess a combination of conspicuousness with such unpleasant attributes as render them unpalatable, the gray snapper should have learned to avoid them at sight and their conspicuousness would then have a warning significance. It is shown that when atherina, an inconspicuous fish which serves normally as the food of the gray snapper, is given an artificial warning color and at the same time rendered unpalatable, it is, after a brief experience, no longer taken as food by the gray snapper. Artificially colored atherinas thus come to have a warning significance for the gray snapper and are avoided, even when not unpalatable, although normal atherinas are still readily eaten. The conclusion is thus reached that the existence of a warning coloration or of warning conspicuousness in coral fishes is easily possible.

This possibility was tested by feeding to gray snappers in their natural environment but at a distance from the reefs, conspicuous coral-reef fishes both living and dead. Of the 21 species thus fed all were taken by the gray snapper, with the exception of one which escaped by reason of the large size of the individual used. It is concluded that these coral-reef fishes do not possess that combination of conspicuousness with unpleasant attributes necessary to the theory of warning coloration. Their conspicuousness has no warning significance. Certain further evidence is presented to show that the rapidity and nicety of adjustment of the gray snapper to its food is such that it learns to avoid what is unpalatable without the necessity of its being warningly colored or otherwise conspicuous.

The conclusion is reached that the conspicuousness of coral-reef fishes, since it is not a secondary sexual character and has no necessary meaning for protection, aggression, or as warning, is without biological significance. The coral-reef fishes have no need of aggressive inconspicuousness because their food consists of invertebrates, chiefly fixed. They have no need of protective inconspicuousness because the reefs and their agility afford them abundant protection. Selection has therefore not acted on their colors or other conspicuous characters, but these have developed in the absence of selection and through internal forces. They are the result of race tendency unchecked by selection.

An attempt is made to apply this conclusion to the " warning coloration " of conspicuous insects. Evidence is collated to show that vertebrate foes are able to discriminate between palatable and unpalatable insects without the aid of a distinguishing conspicuousness. If such power of discrimination exists, then since unpalatability must have preceded conspicuousness in insects, this conspicuousness can not have been initiated by selection. If it began without the aid of selection it may well have continued to develop without it. The conspicuousness of warningly colored insects is then attributed to the avoidance of them by vertebrate foes at a time when they were still relatively inconspicuous. This avoidance rendered protective inconspicuousness unnecessary to them, while the nature of their food rendered aggressive inconspicuousness unnecessary. Their unpleasant attributes have protected them from their enemies, as the reefs have protected the coral-reef fish. Under this immunity from selection they have been free to develop conspicuousness, which is therefore regarded as an expression of race tendency, of internal forces, in the absence of selection.

The theory of *immunity coloration* is proposed as a substitute for the theory of warning coloration and it is shown that it covers certain cases not covered by the theory of warning coloration. Immunity coloration is defined on page 316.

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EXPLANATION OF PLATES.

[All figures are reproductions of instantaneous photographs made in the natural environment with a submerged camera on orthochromatic plates with the aid of a color screen.]

PLATE 1.

FIG. 1. Rock ledges near the beach, showing 3 *Abudefduf marginatus* banded with black and yellow-white, and 2 grunts (*Hæmulon* sp., apparently *sciurus*) striped with blue and yellow. A spherical "head" of living coral (*Porites*) in the middle background. Note the upper *Abudefduf* swimming by the use of the pectorals. When these fish are seen endwise against the surface film the bands blend and the fish are then almost invisible.

FIG. 2. *Abudefduf marginatus* seen in crevasses of a reef of massive coral. Note everywhere over the reef the mantle of living coral polyps (*Orbicella*).

PLATE 2.

FIG. 3. At least three *Hæmulon flavolineatum*, French grunt, among coral rocks and *Millepora* at the base of a reef. The stripes are silvery lavender-blue and chrome yellow. At the right a large snapper (apparently *Lutianus apodus*) conspicuously banded in black or brown and yellow.

FIG. 4. A small labroid fish of an unidentified species feeding on the rock bottom; at its left a branching gorgonian (*Plexaura*).

PLATE 3.

FIG. 5. Two blue surgeons (*Hepatus cæreuleus*) in front of a branching gorgonian (*Plexaura*) on bottom rock. Note the lancet in the caudal peduncle of the one at the right. In front of the surgeons a *Chætodon ocellatus*, the tail of which moved during exposure. The entire dorsal, anal, pelvics and caudal peduncle are spectral yellow.

FIG. 6. A *Chætodon capistratus* over an incrusting coral (*Mæandrina*) on bottom rock and in front of large gorgonian on which expanded polyps may be seen immediately over the fish. The fish is nearly gray, with much yellow on snout and fins.

PLATE 4.

FIG. 7. In the foreground *Iridio bivittatus* (slippery Dick) feeding on bottom. The stripes at a little distance appear black and white. In the background a second *Iridio bivitattus* above, and a *Hæmulon flavolineatum* or French grunt below.

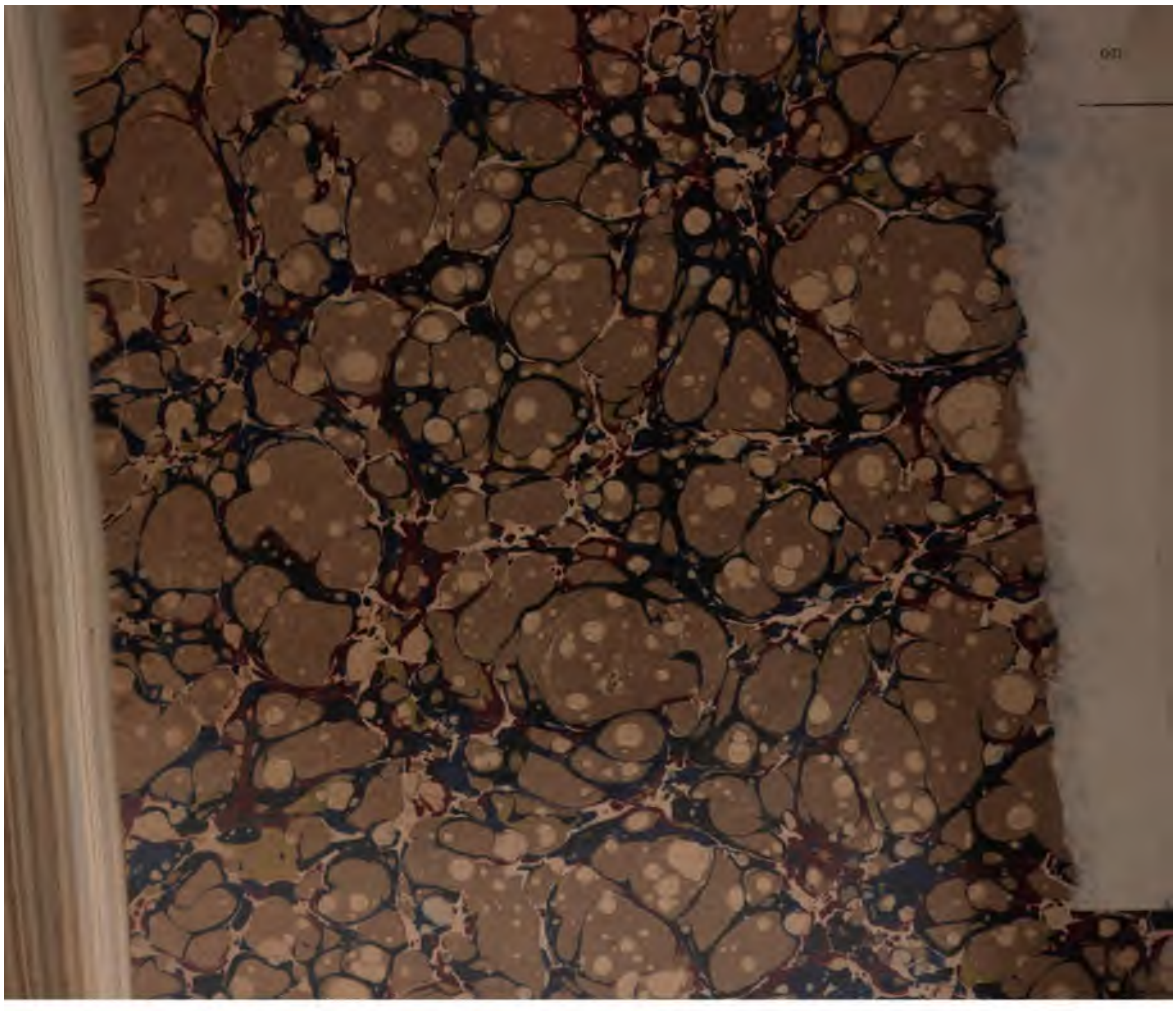
FIG. 8. Massive coral (*Orbicella*) on the outer face of a reef. In the lower right-hand corner an *Elacatinus oceanops* clinging to the coral. The stripes are very light and very dark blue and appear nearly black and white. At the left an expanded tube-inhabiting annelid (*Spirobranchus tricornis*).

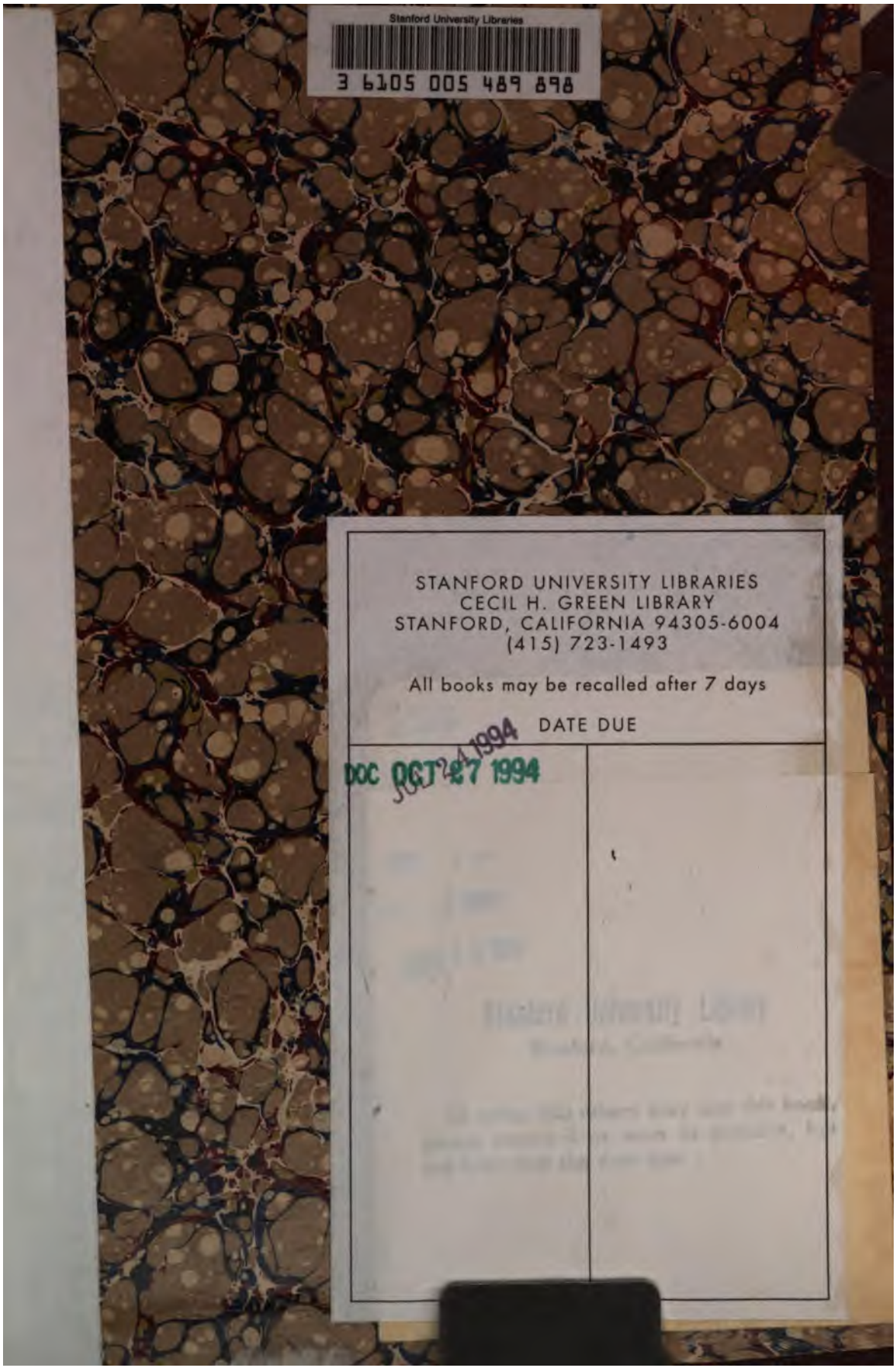
FIG. 9. The gray snapper (*Lutianus griseus*), as it appears over the coral sand near the shore; an instance of aggressive resemblance.

PLATE 5.

FIG. 10. A group of large coral-reef fishes over a rock cleft in front of branching gorgonians. At the left two surgeons (*Hepatus hepatus*). The lancet is visible in the one at the right. A third surgeon at right of middle below also shows the lancet. These fish are practically black. In the center a French grunt (*Hæmulon flavolineatum*), striped with yellow and blue. At the left of this a blue parrot-fish (*Callyodon cæruleus*); at its right a green parrot-fish (probably *Callyodon vetula*). Beneath the green parrot-fish a mottled parrot (*Sparisoma?*). Above the grunt a second mottled parrot and to the left of this a third. Behind the green parrot a purple sea-fan (*Rhipidogorgia*). Note the position of the pectoral in the parrots and the left-hand surgeon.

FIG. 11. A group of large coral-reef fish, chiefly yellow and blue grunts, mostly *Hæmulon sciurus*. Among these at the left one or two gray snappers (*Lutianus griseus*). At the right are purple sea-fans (*Rhipidogorgia*) and to the left of these two large parrot fish. In front of the lower parrot fish a surgeon (*Hepatus hepatus*). A second surgeon farther to the left shows the characteristic mode of locomotion by the pectoral fins. This is seen also in the lower parrot. The camera was pointed toward the light, so that the markings of the fish are not as distinct as they would otherwise be.

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